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ABSTRACT

This document presents summary reports of six demonstration projects and one research project engaged in primary prevention of alcohol and drug abuse. The goals of these seven projects were the same, though each evolved and worked differently: (1) reinforcement of nonuse of alcohol and drugs; (2) discouragement of experimentation; and (3) prevention or early intervention in the destructive use of all substances. The programs focused very little on drug use and abuse, per se, but attempted to deal with causes rather than symptoms. The final aim of these projects was to find ways to humanize teacher education, to change prospective teachers who would create a humanistic environment in the schools so that students would no longer feel the need to seek external gratification through drug abuse. The six demonstration projects are summarized in reports entitled: (1) Preservice Model Project (sponsored by Life Resources and Boston College); (2) Humanizing Environment and Educational Development (Mankato, Minnesota, State University); (3) HIP--An Alternative Program for the Preparation of Elementary Teachers (University of Missouri--Columbia); (4) A Competency-Based Affective Program for Preservice Teachers (University of Houston); (5) USOE Drug Abuse Prevention Demonstration Project (University of Northern Iowa); (6) The Drug Education Program (University of California at Santa Cruz). The Research project report is entitled "Self-Knowledge Education as an Approach to Drug Abuse Education," and was conducted by the University of Massachusetts. A summary of significant features of all seven reports is presented in an afterword, as well as possible future action in the area. (MJB)

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Humanizing Preservice Teacher Education: Strategies for Alcohol and Drug Abuse Prevention

Summary Reports from
Six Demonstration Projects
and One Research Project

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

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CLEARINGHOUSE ON
TEACHER EDUCATION

ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE EDUCATION
PROGRAM, U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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HUMANIZING PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION:
STRATEGIES FOR ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE PREVENTION

Summary Reports from
Six Demonstration Projects
and One Research Project

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ERIC

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FOREWORD

Increasingly, schools have been viewed as the vehicle for accomplishing desired social change in this country: they are asked not merely to impart a high quality of education, in the narrow academic sense, but to foster the healthy personal growth of each individual student as well. Where the schools have fallen short in both the cognitive and the affective domains, they have drawn blame for much of the alienation and skepticism rife among today's young people. These feelings, in turn, are seen as responsible to a great extent for such self- and socially-destructive behavior as alcohol and drug abuse.

In seeking to combat the increasing prevalence of substance abuse, the U.S. Office of Education's Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program (ADAEP) has taken a novel tack. Rather than simply providing information about how to recognize different drugs and their symptoms, or exhorting against their social evils, ADAEP also is grappling with root causes--the alienation, inhibitions, insecurity, fear of failure, and similar feelings that lead students to withdraw from constructive social behavior into the world of drugs.

Integral to the ADAEP strategy, described in greater detail in Getting to the Roots in Alcohol and Drug Abuse Prevention (National Action Committee for Drug Education, University of Rochester, N.Y., June 1977), is a series of six demonstration projects in preservice teacher education. The aim of the six projects, and a supportive research project also funded by ADAEP, was to find ways to humanize teacher education, to change prospective teachers so that later they will create in the schools a humanistic environment for their students. By changing teachers, ADAEP would change the schools; by changing the schools, it would change students so that they no longer feel the need to seek external gratification through drug abuse.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education is cooperating in the publication of the final reports of the ADAEP projects because, while they differ markedly one from another, they all offer possible alternatives to--or suggest new dimensions for--current programs in preservice teacher education. Because they focus on causes of substance abuse instead of effects, the projects have experiences and lessons of potential benefit to all who would personalize and humanize teacher education.

The Clearinghouse is grateful to Dr. Helen Nowlis, Director of the Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program, U.S. Office of Education; Dr. James Spillane, Program Coordinator, ADAEP; and Ms. Ruth Levenson, Project Director, BRX Institute/Academy for Educational Development's Technical Assistance Program for ADAEP, for making these final reports available, and for providing continued assistance in the editing and production of the final publication. Comments and suggestions from readers are welcome.

KARL MASSANARI
Director, ERIC Clearinghouse
on Teacher Education

INTRODUCTION

After several years of sponsoring inservice education for teachers through state education agencies and the U.S. Office of Education's Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program (ADAEP) Regional Training Centers, it became obvious that educators greatly need help in understanding youthful alienation, drug and alcohol use and abuse, and other self- and socially-destructive behaviors. Teachers admitted they were unprepared to deal with such behaviors, to intervene or prevent them. For this reason, the ADAEP staff decided in 1973 to seek to effect change in teachers before they enter the schools, through projects in teacher education institutions.

The strategy initially adopted was to provide short-term skills training/program planning conferences especially geared to the needs and resources on college campuses, and to follow up with field technical assistance upon request. Under the auspices of the ADAEP National Action Committee, 180 teacher education institutions, each represented by a faculty/student/administrator team, received training in 1973 and 1974. The teams returned to their campuses and engaged in a number of activities, including: (a) planning drug prevention/education programs; (b) training other college faculty in effective approaches; (c) developing innovative teaching materials; and (d) involving state education agency personnel.

On the basis of this broad-scale approach, six model projects and one research project were funded more extensively for three years in 1974. Three of these projects grew out of teams which participated in the short-term training conferences. The model projects were initiated through a "Request for Proposals" directed at schools and colleges of education. The overall USOE goal for these model projects, as stated in the RFP, was:

. . . to institute changes in teacher training institutions which will prepare teachers better to promote positive growth and development and to intervene in self- and socially-destructive behavior (exemplified by alcohol and drug abuse) in young people.

Implicit in the RFP was an attempt: (a) to promote changes in teacher education institutions to allow for a reordering of priorities in curriculum, methods, and field experiences; (b) to expose students to a more relevant teaching/learning process which would model desired attitudes and behaviors; and (c) to involve student teachers in a meaningful, responsive learning experience which would enable them to be more aware of their potential as teachers to enhance the positive growth and development of young people. It was felt that a teacher who has mastered the blending of cognitive and affective modes, who can draw values and decision-making lessons from the curriculum, and who enables students to make sense of learning in their own terms can help students understand the world and their place in it. Such a teacher can draw from students what is real and valuable and so validate their sense of worth.

Six institutions were selected for support to develop model projects: Life Resources, Inc., of Boston, in collaboration with Boston College; Mankato (Minnesota) State University; University of Northern Iowa; University of Missouri--Columbia; University of Houston; and University of California at Santa Cruz. At the same time, an existing USOE grant with the University of Massachusetts was supplemented for a three-year related research project. The hypothesis underlying the research was that young people would be less likely to develop self-destructive habits if their school experience could foster growth in self-knowledge. The end result was to be the development of self-knowledge curriculum materials which could be used in schools.

Each of the six model projects was selected because it presented a situation in some way unique from the others. One originated from a Department of Counselor Education in a CBTE institution; one from the Professional Sequence in a Department of Educational Psychology. Another was a joint effort between the Dean of a School of Education and a community agency of the Archdiocese of Boston. Two offered alternative tracks for students, with more field involvement and a closer faculty-student relationship; one of these focused on alternative placements, the other on placements with alienated, mostly Chicano, youth.

During the three years of federal support, the projects evolved in different ways and concentrated their energies differently. However, all worked toward common objectives in creating, within their institutions, change in the preparation of teachers to reflect and model qualities desired in young teachers. Their efforts required commitment and cooperation of administration in the change process; faculty participation in training and upgrading of skills; student involvement in early, more varied, and more comprehensive field experiences; participation of local schools and teachers in a cooperative effort with the Schools of Education; and, most important, the exposure of future teachers to a humane, caring, personalized environment so that they, in turn, can provide the same type of positive, growth-producing environment for students in their classrooms.

Project administrators, deans, and faculty came together annually to share experiences and progress. In the spring of 1977, the final year of USOE support, the program's National Action Committee sponsored a final two-day dissemination conference for the projects. A number of deans of colleges of education from around the country also were invited. The objective was not only to give representatives from the projects the opportunity to share with peers their philosophies, the processes of project development, and their problems and successes; but also to provide a forum on preservice teacher education and engage all participants in task discussion, sharing of problems, and a search for ideas.

The seven papers included in this publication were prepared for the dissemination conference by the project directors. It is hoped that the processes and strategies for change and the resultant programs described in the papers will be useful to other teacher education institutions across the country.

Before the papers are read, however, it should be noted that despite the funding source there is an almost total lack of focus on drug use and drugs per se. This reflects the basic philosophy of the USOE Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program. From the inception

of this program, the Office of Education avoided a "straight information" approach to alcohol and drug abuse prevention. This approach assumed that if factual information were provided on the effects of certain drugs, including social and legal consequences of drug abuse, young people would automatically be dissuaded from using drugs. Curricula were developed which taught students the chemical composition of various drugs and the laws which covered drug arrests. Drug abuse was handled like any other subject in the classroom, and evaluated in terms of student increases in knowledge and antidrug attitudes.

But despite the gain in students' knowledge, drug abuse continued to increase. Recent research has confirmed that factual information alone is not effective prevention in many cases. In some situations, purely factual information on the effects of drugs may actually increase drug use, by raising the curiosity of some youth.

The USOE program is a primary prevention program which attempts to deal with causes rather than to concentrate on symptoms. The goals of the program are: (a) reinforcing non-use, (b) discouraging experimentation, and (c) preventing or intervening early in destructive use of all substances.

Its strategies are drawn from the basic principles of learning, motivation, growth and development, communication, and from existing research on a variety of deviant and destructive behaviors, including destructive drug and alcohol use. Its primary targets are the adults who daily influence the growth and development of young people and shape the institutions or groups in which this growth occurs--the family, the school, and the community.

LIFE RESOURCES/BOSTON COLLEGE
PRESERVICE MODEL PROJECT
Boston, Massachusetts

C. Melvin Surette and James E. O'Connell, Jr.

A COOPERATIVE EFFORT

In spring 1974, Life Resources (a community agency) and the Boston College School of Education jointly responded to a request from the U.S. Office of Education for proposals "to institute change in teacher training institutions to better prepare teachers to promote positive growth and development in young people and to intervene in dysfunctional behavior exemplified by alcohol and drug abuse." The project offered an opportunity to unite the college with disparate community groups serving young people. Life Resources, as an outside agency, also saw this as a chance to enhance the development of the outreach program at Boston College to include segments of the community that would demand changes, press for an academic and experiential response to new needs in teacher education, and create alternative career options for students.

The opportunity to demonstrate to a school of education the reasons for considering changes in its curriculum to respond to the growing substance use pattern led Life Resources to invite Boston College to share in this grant. While the College administration felt their cognitive training efforts were good, they admitted their need for assistance in developing affective areas of their curriculum while expanding and learning from alternative field experiences.

USOE granted funding for the preservice project to be developed collaboratively by the two agencies. Each partner brought specific strengths to the project:

Life Resources

In 1971, the Archdiocese of Boston established the Office of Life Resources in an attempt to respond to the needs of street youths and the growing community of substance abusers. The Director of Life Resources, through his memberships on national, state, and city boards in the field of drug education, treatment, and Manpower services, was keenly aware of the repeatedly poor educational history of many youthful offenders and the effect this had on their lives. In the operation of treatment programs, the need for educational rehabilitation was obvious. Questions arose as to the educational needs of youths who were presently in treatment, as well as ways to bring prevention strategies into the schools so that the schools would become places in which to deal with problems, not places to run away from.

Boston College

One of the oldest Jesuit-founded universities in the United States, Boston College has a strong representation of students from middle-class Irish Catholic families. The School of Education, founded in 1952,

offers 1,130 undergraduates a program which combines a liberal arts education with professional teacher preparation. There are 60 faculty members. Within the College, this school has the highest minority population--eight percent. Students may concentrate on Early Childhood, Elementary, Special, or Secondary Education. All programs lead to the degree of Bachelor of Arts and fulfill the requirements for teacher certification.

OBJECTIVES

Life Resources and the Boston College School of Education stated objectives for the preservice project in terms of developing affective skills and alternative educational strategies to be demonstrated by individual participants in a humanistic approach to drug education. Seven major objectives will be described here.

OBJECTIVE 1: To develop a new and creative approach to preservice drug education programs

When communities realize the schools are an effective place to deal with the problems of substance abuse and other dysfunctional behavior, they will demand more of teachers in the classroom. The university, in turn, must recognize its responsibility to address the problem in its teacher education programs. Traditional curriculum, methodology, and field experience have not responded to these additional needs. Humanistic or affective educational techniques and programs that take into account the personal needs of young people and provide opportunities for personal growth and life-skills development can be effective prevention strategies. It becomes clear, then, that the university must incorporate these concepts into both academic and experiential preservice programs in order to unify the entire teacher education effort. It was from such a theoretical base that Life Resources and the Boston College School of Education developed a preservice model incorporating humanistic or affective educational concerns through a mechanism of alternative field placements and complementary academic programs.

OBJECTIVE 2: To maximize the effects of available resources in meeting individual project objectives by enhancing cooperation and coordination between the participating teacher education institution, Boston College; an outside agency, Life Resources; and other cooperating field sites

A variety of resources were brought together to achieve project goals: Boston College School of Education, Life Resources, and several agencies, including preschool programs, traditional schools, alternative education settings for junior and senior high school students, residential group settings, and drug treatment programs. Rev. C. Melvin Surette and James E. O'Connell, Jr., the Project Director and Assistant Director respectively, had contacts with personnel in many treatment programs and community service agencies, as well as with persons in metropolitan area community education/prevention efforts. These contacts facilitated the inclusion of the agencies in the various options offered undergraduates

interested in obtaining a clearer understanding of behavior problems and the role of educators in the prevention process.

Before the inception of the preservice project, a system of core learning centers, using six public school systems, provided field placement opportunities for most of the undergraduate education majors at the College. These placements began in the student's sophomore year on a one day per week basis, continued through the junior year, and became 15-week practice teaching settings for the senior year. Some students sought and received placements in private settings, some in the Museum School, and others out of state or abroad in England. In this traditional placement system, the College supervisors for undergraduates were usually taken from the pool of graduate students at the School of Education.

Dean Lester Przewlocki and Associate Dean Raymond Martin of the School of Education welcomed the cooperation, energy, and innovation of outside agents in helping to explore new ways to enhance the preservice program. In an initial meeting, the Dean suggested that project staff invite several Boston College faculty members to participate in this program, which was described as:

"... having as a goal the convening of resources--traditional, alternative, vocational, and rehabilitative--for bringing undergraduates into field placement opportunities allowing for new closeness and sensitivity to kids and adolescent issues and needs. The proposal will have impact upon the way students are prepared to be teachers through new associations and feedback. . . ."

At the same meeting, the Dean said, "Let's recognize that we are changing assumptions about teacher education," and called for faculty participants from various disciplines. With that encouragement, faculty from Counseling, Psychology, Sociology, Educational Psychology, Curriculum and Instruction, Tests and Measurements, and the Directors of Field Placement, Methods in Education, and Urban Education as well as the Associate Dean became part of the project.

Several parochial, public, private, and alternative schools in or near Boston were incorporated into the project's alternative program because they were responsive to the objectives. Because the nature of the alternative placements varied from site to site, we have described those that were most representative.

●Alpha Omega in Littleton, Mass., is a residential, therapeutic home for 16 adolescent boys, 14-19 years of age, who are experiencing difficulties at home and at school. All are court adjudicated to the home and live there from nine months to a year. Most receive help through individual counseling and/or group and family-group therapy to develop a fuller awareness of themselves, to gain the skills necessary to improve their self-image and their ability to cope with reality, and to accept responsibility for behavior toward themselves and society. Three full-time educators supervise the education component, a personalized daily remedial education effort to help residents maintain a scholastic level comparable to that of their outside peers. The education component is not a separate one; learning and growth experiences at the house are integrated, and many boys return to their communities in metropolitan Boston without losing time from school.

● Gloucester is a chronically depressed community of nearly 20,000. Unemployment hovers at 15 percent and is particularly heavy among the "disadvantaged" Portuguese and Italian populace whose native language is not English. In the high school, almost 80 percent of the students choose not to go on to college; and, by their own estimates, 75 percent have used drugs other than alcohol. Three sites are located in this North Shore community.

The Gloucester Community Development Corporation (GCDC) exists to promote and actualize the re-creation of the community. Its basic premise is that the elements of this re-creation--people, cultural values, materials, ideas, craftsmanship, and energies--are to be found in the community. The GCDC is a creative process, and the Boston College students are encouraged--no, expected--to jump in, find their place, and contribute. The director of the program believes the value of the learning experience is best found through a hands-on approach, and projects that involved undergraduates placed them amid reconstruction efforts in a colonial cemetery, construction of a community resource center, and development of a community education program.

Gloucester's Project Nuva staff supervises the alternative high school and preschool programs. The alternative school provides an educational system for young adults, 14-21 years old, who are looking for a style of living/learning which emphasizes personal growth, recognizes individual abilities, encourages self-determination, supports creative inquiry, and trains and reinforces basic skills. The meaningful opportunities for students with these special needs are provided through situations, curriculum, tutoring, and guidance which enable the student to develop valuable skills in journal writing; group and individual exploration in reading, language, and communication; vocational and career development; and group and independent studies in literature, mathematics, history, science, physical education, human sexuality, and health. Personal and academic growth are stressed equally.

The Life Resources and Nuva staffs proposed that a preschool be established as a part of the alternative program. Student volunteers demonstrated their ability to build a program by working with community agencies, conducting a needs survey, and researching appropriate licensing requirements. In addition, they satisfied their own field placement needs and gained valuable experience by working in a local Head Start program. After curriculum development and parent orientation meetings, the preschool opened in Gloucester during the spring 1977 semester, with a staff of seven undergraduates and a supervisor/teacher.

● St. Francis de Sales Community School is a member of the Boston Archdiocesan system. Located in the inner city, the school serves and is administered by a predominantly black population. Educational objectives include the encouragement of verbal expression and feelings; deemphasis on competition; involvement of parents; and growth in the ability of staff members to work cooperatively and creatively while encouraging individual thinking and self-reliance in all the students. These objectives enable the student to feel confident and to support and trust other students.

● Somerville is a white, lower middle-class, blue-collar community which supports an active youth program. The Pilot and Full Circle

Alternative Schools offer integrated educational and counseling programs to junior high and senior high school youths unable to cope in the traditional system. Emphasis is on developing the skills necessary for responsible decision making and personal growth. The Somerville Human Development Program offers informal peer counseling and minicourses on subjects of interest and concern at the high school. The staff also provides inservice training and consultation to the faculty and to this project.

These agencies/sites all were new resources and provided Boston College administrators and faculty assistance in answering their own students' needs. Educational, counseling, psychological, and social work staffs at the sites enhanced the cooperative learning environment.

OBJECTIVE 3: To provide project participants with broad, general knowledge about substances, and perceptions as to the complex causes of abuse

Because the administrators, faculty members, and undergraduates do not have pharmaceutical knowledge, the project staff experimented with different ways to inform participants about substance use and abuse. There were discussions of the principal drugs used and abused by youths with whose lives and lifestyles they would come into contact at field sites. A seminar session was offered each year to deal specifically with this information, and printed materials were made available. The staff identified the range of substances open to abuse without focusing on one particular drug.

While working in alternative education settings, most undergraduates had to confront substance use that interfered with the lives of their students and brought them into such programs. At center meetings, undergraduates learned how residents and staff together developed and enforced self-imposed regulations about substance use. This proximity to problems helped the undergraduates examine their preconceived notions and decisions about drugs: their choices, their biases, or their own use. Undergraduates came to understand some reasons adolescents choose to use these substances.

OBJECTIVE 4: To develop in project participants the capacity to understand their own values and behaviors as well as to respect the values of others

Realization of this objective came not so much through cognitive planning and educational schemes as through interactions among the participants. As undergraduates sought to understand and appreciate values, behaviors, and attitudes different from their own largely middle-class awarenesses, and to deal with these as merely different rather than threatening, they made significant gains in teaching/learning. They began to consider how differences came to be, how these differences affected life and learning, and how their own roles as teachers came into play.

The undergraduates brought insights gained through their teaching roles to their roles as students at Boston College. The realization

that they needed to respect their students' values caused them to seek within the College environment the same kind of respect for their own values. Particularly significant was the assistance they received from the Dean and Associate Dean when difficulties arose over the fulfillment of specific course requirements. Individual needs were recognized and opportunities to alter curriculum were made.

The impact of this recognition came full-circle when the faculty and administrators at Boston College began reassessing the School of Education curriculum. Not only were the written communications and person-to-person discussions evidence that some attitude changes had occurred, but behaviors indicated that a mutual respect had begun to emerge. Students more willingly accepted the College as an educational entity, and the College sought ways to change and expand because of this affective, alternative education experiment.

OBJECTIVE 5: To develop in project participants the skills to work with young people in the development of a positive self-concept, a workable values system, skills for intelligent decision making, skills for open communication, and other skills thought to relate to a reduction of drug abuse

The project sought to provide the theory and experiences necessary for participants to develop an understanding of interpersonal relationships, the group dynamics in a classroom, teaching/learning roles, and affective life skills. It was more than an academic program reviewing current social, psychological, and political knowledge in the area of innovative, humanistic education, and more too than an isolated set of alternative field placements. The two were integrated in biweekly seminars.

Seminars. The seminar sessions--twice monthly, noncredit meetings led by the project staff--were intended to complement field experiences with academic input about the essential knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be attained. In these sessions faculty, site staff, and undergraduates were encouraged to explore a broad range of information and issues. Discussions focused on the substance abuse issue--its history, institutional response to the problem, its contemporary cultural/social context, and educational strategies to deal with causal factors--as well as on generic educational innovations, such as the Magic Circle, Schools Without Failures, Role Playing, Values Clarification, and Peer Counseling. The undergraduates were encouraged to relate the discussions to their personal and on-site growth processes.

The seminars were not structured to be simply academic experiences. A significant portion of each session was spent in identifying, developing, and practicing skills and strategies related to field experiences.

Site staff members occasionally conducted seminar sessions at Boston College to share their educational experiences and philosophies and to relate these to project goals.

Activities at Sites. The alternative field placements offered the major opportunities for experiential learning. The seminars outlined basic concepts, stimulated thought, suggested strategies, and motivated

action; then, participants experimented with suggested strategies and activities in the field. Undergraduates worked closely with young people in such projects as determining the pollution level in a pond behind a residential group home, plastering the walls of a resource center, and leading a Black History lesson at an inner-city school. Journals and logs reflect that undergraduates became more aware of themselves, their value systems, and their history, and were motivated and more able to bring that understanding of self and others to the learning environment.

Fear, anger, frustration, and boredom were issues to be dealt with. An evaluation mechanism was devised from these identified areas and the personal, affective concerns of undergraduates taken into account. The undergraduates exhibited a high level of self-direction and responsibility for what were essentially their own field experiences. Evaluation was perceived as a supportive, nonjudgmental process which would describe and enhance growth rather than identify and criticize shortcomings.

The field placements themselves were intense, realistic, and often initially intimidating experiences where "survival" was very much a concern. Many undergraduates held stereotypic views of juvenile delinquents, drug addicts, and their inner-city and ghetto environments. Such perceptions, readily communicated in the classroom, often interfered with learning. To effect a solution to the real or imagined problems of survival, a supportive advisory and supervisory system was developed.

Through experience, participants learned to recognize and solve problems, and were constantly reflecting on and making decisions about their placements, their participation, and their career choices. Site students were simultaneously encouraged to deal with the problem situations in their lives and make responsible decisions about choice, behavior, and future goals. In one setting, minicourses were established on issues of concern: human sexuality, weight control, alcoholism, and sexual stereotyping. At another site, undergraduates led students through role playing about truancy, vandalism, and exam taking. Through this contact, project participants learned to communicate openly and honestly with young people.

OBJECTIVE 6: To combat anomie by developing in project participants an understanding of how group pride, associated with ethnic or community roots, can influence the learning environment

The project field sites often reflected strong group and cultural identification. Group pride was an important issue in one largely minority-populated school where the message to students is "we are good within and for ourselves." Cultural and group pride was demonstrated in other placements as well--drug programs, residential homes, and alternative schools--where the education program was built around special needs of site students. Boston College undergraduates came to appreciate how a direct response to special needs can combat boredom and alienation. Some undergraduates experienced a clearer sense of their own identity and learned of their ability to influence the educational program at Boston College.

Also, through project sites in Somerville and Gloucester, the undergraduates learned to deal with community-related issues and their

effect on the learning environment. Of one of the sites, located in a physically debilitated building, an undergraduate remarked: "Why would anyone want to send their kid into a building that looks like that? What does it say to a child? The youngster has been a problem in the system, but to put him in a place like this. . . ." When students contrasted this site with their own educational, social, and family backgrounds, they understood the influence of the physical environment on learning. One student is now working with a group of parents and teachers to bring about community response and physical change in her site.

OBJECTIVE 7: To provide participants with the opportunity to explore alternative education concepts and to work with others to practice and develop life skills that challenge dysfunctional behavior

Several factors seemed particularly important in creating an environment--specifically a teaching/learning environment--which encouraged alternatives to substance abuse and other destructive behaviors. Five of these were considered:

1. Challenge. Because the focus of the project was on affective growth of participants and site students, little has been said about the standards of academic accomplishment. This omission should not be taken to mean that cognitive achievement should be minimized; indeed, high academic expectations and a high degree of challenge have had a positive effect on students. An important part of this challenge, whether the task be shingling a roof, solving a math problem, or presenting a role-play situation, is its relevance to the student's world. For example, when site students in Gloucester restored a colonial burial ground they learned a great deal about their community and their own ancestry. They helped draft legislation which affected their efforts in Gloucester and solved math problems necessary to construct a building.
2. Freedom. Personal and professional growth needs an environment where freedom of choice exists. A student needs an opportunity to make meaningful choices in order to grow. In the inner-city elementary school, the student or teacher raised value issues through discussions of pride, cooperation, or unity. When the people sharing the classroom environment had a chance to affect their own development, they learned to trust and respect each other's decisions.
3. Respect. The worth and dignity of students were vital. An essential element of alternative education was given recognition in the individual student's right to responsible decision making, whether in a classroom or in a residential group home. Stereotypes of "juvenile delinquents" were broken down when undergraduates recognized, "I would have dismissed these guys as bad, stupid . . . just plain trouble. Now I know they are not. . . . Sometimes they teach me."

4. Control. Theoreticians suggest that children who grow up in a permissive environment tend to develop less self-esteem than those reared in a firmer, more demanding atmosphere. Often, a direct association between alternative and permissive is assumed; but many alternative programs express caring through commitment to discipline, order, and growth. Structured and demanding programs clearly define responsibility and encourage growth.
5. Success. Perhaps the single most important step that teachers can take is to provide an educational atmosphere of success rather than failure. Youngsters need to feel good about what they are able to do, not bad about what they cannot do. While students learn to accept their mistakes and not be embarrassed, they grow through their accomplishments.

PROJECT IMPACT

By bringing together multiple resources, this project demonstrated to Boston College alternative education opportunities and ways of incorporating humanistic education objectives into preservice education. The outcomes of the project clearly indicated the feasibility of initiating a track in alternative education opportunities in the School of Education. The preservice project has had an impact on the curriculum of the School of Education, which was in the process of reviewing its objectives as a part of a Dean's Project. Some of the faculty members working with the preservice project became involved in the Dean's Project, leading committees or contributing input based on their actual experiences in the field with students in the preservice project. The Dean and the Associate Dean noted the influence of the preservice project's affective programming on the Dean's Project.

As a result of this preservice project, a four-year program in alternative education will be offered. Thus a Boston College student who does not want to be in a traditional classroom will be provided with strong undergraduate models and experiences in alternatives. At the same time, the preparation of all students will be enhanced. The introduction during the 1977 academic year of a new course for all freshmen, "Interpersonal Communication in the Classroom," under the direction of a faculty participant in the preservice project, will be followed by a sophomore and junior sequence.

Through involvement with the project, the participants and Boston College benefited from the wide range of cultural settings and the variety of life styles interacting together. Some participants learned about different community organizations and their efforts toward better education and alternative education for their young people.

The project also offered participants some exposure to different educational techniques and skills. The challenge was to use these skills in settings different from those already established at Boston College, and to use new methods to enhance their own growth process and education. Undergraduates particularly benefited through development of

decision making, communication, and life skills techniques they can apply to their roles as teachers and students.

Boston College has seen the resources an outside agency such as Life Resources can provide. In education, alternative programs have helped to bring about change within the undergraduate curriculum, and the outside agencies have proven that they can and should have a hand in the formulation and implementation of that change. More undergraduates will be placed in alternative settings in the future as a result of this experience in preservice alternative field placement. Though the outside agency probably should not be the motivating and administrative facet of a project so integral to a university program, it is clear that the university should look to these agencies for ideas that will result in attention to new educational needs.

Though the solutions to problems of communication, support, and credibility take time, they can be found if and when a teacher preparation institution assumes ownership of all facets of the alternative field placement program. Inflexible requirements and evaluation mechanisms can then be altered and made more responsive to individual needs. As institutions cease to feel threatened by innovations in field placements and accept their challenge, alternative mechanisms can evolve.

HUMANIZING ENVIRONMENT AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT Mankato State University

Ruth McNeal, Harold Burch

In 1973, the USOE National Action Committee for Drug Education invited colleges and universities to send five-member teams to a training conference in St. Louis, Missouri. Purposes of the conference were: (a) to clarify how teacher education programs can enhance the competency of teachers to respond to students, and (b) to lend developmental assistance to such programs to help them improve teacher competency in responding to drug problems in schools and communities.

The team from Mankato (Minnesota) State University was composed of two students, two education faculty members, and one education administration representative. George T. Lock Land, author of Grow or Die,¹ conducted workshops on decision-making skills at the St. Louis conference and was later invited to Mankato State University to conduct workshops in creative decision making for all administrators, department chairpersons, and other key personnel at the University.

In July 1974 the School of Education at Mankato State University undertook a challenge to develop and implement a model for preservice preparation in drug abuse prevention, in response to the U.S. Office of Education goal: "To institute changes in teacher training institutions which will prepare teachers better to promote positive growth and development in young people and to intervene in self and socially destructive behavior (exemplified by substance abuse) in young people."

The School of Education, recognizing that teachers do influence the growth and development of students in their classrooms, proposed to develop creative approaches to substance abuse prevention and to integrate them into the professional sequence of teacher education. The School proposed going beyond the limited forms of learning which impart cognitive data to individuals in order to find ways of maximizing opportunities for acquisition of effective intellectual, emotional, conative, and social development skills.

SOCIETAL NEEDS

There is a marked incongruence between American public education and the American society. The society is characterized by technological development, mass communication, diverse cultures, ecological problems, knowledge explosion, and a democracy where individuals are assumed to have freedom of choice in making decisions. However, despite efforts at educational reforms, students--regardless of individual needs and diverse goals--still must conform to a basic education program and are excluded from decisions about what they are and how they learn.

Students have become disillusioned with education, as is evidenced by the high rate of dropouts (40 percent nationally), absenteeism (40-60 percent daily in urban areas), vandalism, and school violence. The

¹ George T. Land. Grow or Die: The Unifying Principle of Transformation. New York: Random House, 1973.

National Education Association, in a Task Force Report on Urban Education, said that in 1972 vandalism costs equaled the total amount spent on textbooks in every school in the country--or enough money to hire 50,000 more teachers. Physical assaults on teachers and students have increased also. A significant number of these incidents are the result of the disillusionment of school age youths reacting to a system they believe has failed.²

There has been an increase in suicides, the most extreme form of alienation, as well as alcohol and drug abuse among youths who seek escape from their environment. All of these conditions are symptomatic of two major underlying problems: loneliness and alienation. Schools are not the only reason for these problems, but schools are a large part of the child's world. Douglas Heath found that an increasing number of students reject the traditional authority in schools and refuse to accept requirements, grades, and competitiveness; they find little relevance between what is being taught and the problems they face in everyday life. Students become apathetic, bored, and uncommitted.³

The primary focus of the educational system has been the cognitive development of students. Students' emotional needs have largely been ignored. When an individual's needs are not met, destructive behavior (including drug use and abuse) may seem to be the solution for frustration, loneliness, and alienation. Heath said, "Apathy, loneliness, and meaninglessness challenge us to develop more integratively and so more humanly."⁴

EDUCATION'S RESPONSIBILITIES

In accepting the challenge to develop a model for the preparation of education personnel in drug abuse prevention, we asked, "What is our job as educators?" We delineated three major responsibilities of teacher education institutions:

1. To prepare teachers who can contribute to the child's affective, cognitive, and conative development; help the learner develop personal living skills; and help the learner acquire creative decision-making skills to cope with an increasingly complex world
2. To prepare teachers who can provide methods and develop techniques to make learning more relevant so that students see life as meaningful
3. To prepare teachers who can demonstrate that they care about young people as individuals.

We believe the ultimate aim of education is to enable individuals and groups to develop their potential fully. A teacher who has skills

² From the NEA Task Force Report released by Senator Birch Bayh (Indiana) on February 25, 1977.

³ Douglas H. Heath. "Student Alienation and School." School Review 78 (4): 515-28; August 1970.

⁴ Heath, p. 528.

in creative decision making, enhancing self-concept, and valuing the responsibility of being a change agent can help students cope with their feelings and needs when boredom, loneliness, family, and peer pressure tempt them to experiment with drugs and to be disruptive. Teacher education programs based on this assumption will encourage maximum self-direction and responsibility, so that students will be more able to respond to problems and situations in a complex, changing society.

George Land, in Grow or Die, developed the theory that individuals have a basic drive to grow. Individuals seek information and then ingest what they can use. This process is an act of growth to which the environment reacts; the individual modifies subsequent behavior based on feedback from the environment. If activities for growth are taking place in an antagonistic, suppressed environment, the need to grow is modified and other patterns for continuing growth are established. There is therefore a need to prepare teachers who can affect the environment so that students are helped to understand and respect others and prepared to live in society. "There is a need for teachers who can provide freedom for exploratory play with the environment granting responsibility to the growing child; providing a belief in dignity, respect, and self-affirmation by being willing not only to educate but to learn from and mutualize with our children and allow expression of their growth through affecting their environments."⁵

In such an environment teachers have the attitudes, knowledge, and skills to create a classroom where learning, exploration, and motivation are encouraged. Eight process goals for teachers became the basis for the MSU model for drug abuse prevention:

1. A more positive and realistic self-concept which contributes to becoming a more fully functioning individual in an increasingly stressful environment
2. Trust and a willingness to earn the trust of others
3. A functional value system which is clear to oneself and which recognizes the similarities and differences in the values of others
4. Development and use of more imaginative and systematic skills for decision making and personal and group problem solving
5. A growing commitment to, and improved skills for, effective interpersonal communication
6. A recognition of the inevitability of change and skills for being an active participant in constructive change
7. Responsibility for the consequences of one's own behavior
8. An environment where learning is internalized and becomes operational.

⁵ Land, p. 261.

The effort to develop a model with this underlying philosophy became known as Project HEED (Humanizing Environment and Educational Development).

THE INSTITUTIONAL SETTING

The School of Education at Mankato State University is responsible for provision of all professional education courses, including student teaching and field experience, and for supervision of prospective teachers and recommendations for certification. Project HEED is housed in the Dean's office of the School of Education so the effort will affect the entire teacher education program.

During the past year, a committee made up of faculty members and the Dean reviewed and revised the goals of the School of Education. The revised goals parallel Project HEED's open, flexible, and personalized approach to teacher education. The school is committed to: (a) providing a climate which honors diversity so that students can become acquainted with both traditional and innovative philosophies of education, and (b) actively demonstrating the humanizing educational process.

ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT NEEDS

In order to develop a model, it was necessary to assess student perceptions of their needs. The assessment was carried out by three methods: (a) a needs assessment instrument, (b) a decision-making instrument, and (c) the use of the Personal Orientation Inventory.

Needs Assessment Inventory

We assumed that students who have completed a teacher preparation program are qualified to evaluate the effectiveness of their educational experiences. An assessment inventory was developed to assess prospective teachers' perceptions about whether their teacher education experiences had helped them to develop and practice skills in the areas of communication, self-concept, trust, responsibility, decision making, values, and change.

Results of this survey showed that students believed they had not been given maximum opportunities to develop and practice skills in these goal areas. In all goal areas the mean score ranged from 6.94 to 6.28 on a 10-point scale: values, 6.94; interpersonal communication, 6.90; self-concept, 6.73; responsibility, 6.71; trust, 6.66; change, 6.43; decision making, 6.28.

Decision-Making Instrument

Another approach used in assessing needs of students was a decision-making instrument, developed: (a) to determine to what degree students had skills in decision making, and (b) to determine what students perceived to be problems in education. The instrument was administered to 244 junior and senior students enrolled in the teacher education program in MSU's School of Education.

The instrument was not effective in determining the degree to which students distinguish between alternatives to a problem (divergent thinking) and solutions to a problem (convergent thinking). The instrument did prove effective, however, in identifying student perceptions of problems in education. In almost all cases, it was evident that students interpreted "problems in education" to mean problems relating to the teaching/learning situations they had experienced in the four years they had been in college.

The five problem areas identified by students, and percentages of students identifying each problem, were: (a) lack of flexibility in programs and courses--86 percent; (b) faculty attitudes toward students and peers (non-caring)--72 percent; (c) quality and methods of instruction--67 percent; (d) relevancy of courses--48 percent; (e) methods used in evaluation--47 percent.

Personal Orientation Inventory

The Personal Orientation Inventory is a research instrument which has been standardized with a high degree of reliability and validity. The POI consists of comparative value-judgment items which reflect values and behaviors important in the development of self-actualizing individuals who utilize talents and capabilities and are relatively free of inhibitions and emotional turmoil.

The inventory uses two major scales and ten subscales. The major scales are interpreted in terms of a time ratio and a support ratio; the subscales assess value and behavior judgments which are important in self-actualizing development: valuing, feeling, self-perception, synergistic awareness, and interpersonal sensitivity. All items relate to the theoretical formulations and research in Humanistic Psychology. This humanistic orientation focuses on environmental development as well as self-development. A humanistic learning environment is one in which people can communicate with each other about ideas, personal problems, interests, and emotions, and can listen to each other with empathy, understanding, and respect. Research has shown that in such an environment, both cognitive and affective learnings are greater.

Early findings from Project HEED pointed to the need to assess the environment in which behaviors occur rather than focus solely on individual behavior. Arthur Costa expressed it well: "Since human behavior is idiosyncratic, perhaps it is the interaction of the human with the situation rather than either the human or the situation."⁶

The needs as indicated by students correlate with items which are important in human interaction, such as freedom and structure, life structure, and verbal interaction. These items, in turn, are measured by the Personal Orientation Inventory. The instrument was administered to 34 class sections (N=525). The class sections ranged from college freshmen through students at various levels in the teacher education program to graduate students and public school administrators with five years of teaching experience.

⁶ Arthur L. Costa. "Affective Education: The State of the Art." Educational Leadership 34 (4): 261; January 1977.

The intent of this broad survey was to determine whether there was any difference in the goal areas as persons progressed through additional phases of the School of Education's degree programs. It was found that little change toward more self-actualization occurred from freshmen through graduate school. This finding reinforced a need for working toward the goals of Project HEED, since the lack of movement toward self-actualization is related to the problems of education as perceived in the student surveys.

In summary, the findings from these three attempts to assess student perceptions and attitudes indicated a need in teacher education for more opportunities to promote positive growth and development in prospective teachers, who would then be more able to intervene in and prevent their students' self and socially destructive behavior.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE MODEL

The development of a model was intended to encompass the entire teacher education program. It was considered important to involve the faculty in the development of a theoretical framework instead of dictating an already developed model to be implemented as an experimental program.

Design Team

A seven-member Design Team was selected at the beginning of the project to ensure input from faculty and students. Representatives on the team were faculty members and students from the departments of Curriculum and Instruction, Special Education, Health, and the Wilson Campus School, as well as the Project Director and Assistant Project Director. The Design Team met extensively to develop specific model program goals and objectives. They solicited input from students, faculty, and surveys to develop knowledge, skill, and attitude objectives for each of the eight goals.

Later, the Design Team made refinements in the goals and objectives, which were then incorporated into a handbook along with the philosophy and background of the project. The major portion of the handbook was devoted to examples of experiences through which the goals could be implemented and integrated into any subject matter area. The handbook has been used extensively to promote creativity in both preservice and inservice education. A slide-tape presentation which was developed during the second and third years of the project has been used with many classes and groups to explain project goals and to introduce the handbook and its uses.

Faculty Involvement

Project HEED relied almost entirely on the voluntary cooperation and contributions of individual faculty members in development of the model. Early in the project, meetings were held with faculty members and leaders of programs in the School of Education to gain support, disseminate information, and secure faculty input. Many of their ideas

were utilized to make the general concepts operational. Meetings with individual programs or departments and with the administrative council, made up of all program leaders within the School of Education, continued throughout the project.

As refunding proposals and other materials were being written, ideas and feedback from students and faculty were obtained. Faculty members were also involved in the development of assessment instruments for the Extended Professional Educational Experience to be described later. These faculty members were able to field test the instruments through their graduate classes.

Inservice Workshops

Inservice workshops were provided for University faculty and public school faculty. Thirty School of Education faculty members and public school teachers participated in a two-week workshop which helped establish the project's direction and gave participation to a larger design team in integrating the evolving model into existing curricula in all subject matter areas. A process of experience, feedback, and evaluation provided a framework for participants to increase their own skills and incorporate the eight process goals into their subject matter areas.

Faculty interest and requests led to the scheduling of continued sessions for developing learning experiences and trying out previously developed activities within the group. These staff development workshops became a principal connecting link between cooperating faculty and the project during the next two years, and the sessions provided a support base where project ideas could be practiced and shared and new learning experiences created. One of the major outcomes of these sessions has been an increasing emphasis on the personal growth of participants.

Workshops for public school teachers dealt with the integration of HEED goals into existing curricula, balancing cognitive and affective learning, self-growth, and development of learning strategies. The focus was on individualizing and personalizing the learning environment and developing sensitivity, empathy, and ways to provide for effective interaction in the classroom. Plans are being made for continuation of workshops for public school teachers and administrators, to help them understand the underlying philosophy of substance abuse prevention.

Preservice Teacher Education

Typically, students are admitted to the teacher education program in their junior year. In the School of Education, students in the regular teacher education program have had two options: (a) professional education courses (educational psychology, general methods, student teaching) which are offered in sequence, and (b) a one-quarter block program where the professional education courses are integrated and students have an opportunity for some participatory experience in public schools. After the completion of the block experience, students then enroll for the one-quarter student teaching experience.

The first attempt to implement project goals in the teacher education program was through the faculty of the professional education courses,

who had attended the two-week staff development workshops and the continuing weekly meetings. They were not given specific instruction on how to incorporate the goals into the areas being taught, but were asked to use their own creativity and unique styles of teaching. Stress was placed on modeling the goals in the classroom as well as helping students gain skills in the goal areas to foster their own self-growth.

Individual growth, a complex and ongoing process of personal discovery, is difficult to measure because of the many internal and external forces at work. To attempt to find out if consciously focusing on the goals while teaching the subject matter made a difference in classroom behavior, the Personal Orientation Inventory was administered. This was not an attempt to evaluate faculty but, in a limited fashion, to evaluate the growth of students. It was assumed that growth in the eight goal areas would indicate movement toward more self-actualization, and would be measurable by the scales in the Personal Orientation Inventory.

The POI was administered to 276 students in 13 class sections of the teacher education program. A pretest was given at the beginning of the quarter and a posttest at the end of the quarter. For comparison, students were divided into two groups: Group I consisted of students enrolled in sections taught by faculty who had participated in the workshops, while Group II included students taught by faculty who had not participated. Students in Group I clearly showed more growth in the areas tested by the POI than students in Group II.

Extended Professional Educational Experience

At the beginning of the second year of funding, the Extended Professional Educational Experience (EPEE) was initiated as a vehicle for implementing project goals. The experience, a new preservice alternative for secondary education majors, is carried out cooperatively with the Curriculum and Instruction and Educational Foundations programs. This alternative enables education students to work throughout a two-quarter period, shifting into and out of on-campus experiences and the student teaching experience. After two years of piloting, the School of Education has accepted this alternative as a viable option for students. Thus the Extended Professional Educational Experience is described here according to how the option is currently being implemented.

The EPEE program seeks to change the process whereby the final student teaching experience is separated from professional education taken earlier. Instead of using student teaching as a place to test all that has been learned, the EPEE program assumes that the real classroom is a place where a student teacher can personally discover the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to become a teacher able to create a safe environment which facilitates learning. This type of student teaching experience provides a more continuous and meaningful integration of theory and practice.

Because students take part in on-campus seminars, they are placed in base schools near the University. It is important that base schools understand the goals of the program, and that cooperating teachers in the public schools be willing to work with the University staff and student teachers to help the student teachers discover their strengths and weaknesses in a safe, nonthreatening situation. The cooperating

teacher and student teacher are considered full partners in the teaching-learning process. Whenever possible, a team of student teachers is placed in a school to provide a psychological support system.

Field Experience

The field experience or student teaching begins with half-day experiences for two weeks and then moves to three and four days a week for the first quarter. During the second quarter, students are in the field full-time except for an occasional day-long seminar on campus. They are expected to assume complete responsibility for planning and teaching classes in the second quarter experience.

Students become intensively involved in the entire school setting during the two quarters. They observe classes of different age levels and take part in extracurricular activities; they also attend Curriculum Days which the public schools schedule for their own staff members. A student teacher can participate in team teaching with another student teacher if this is worked out with the cooperating teachers.

Throughout the experience, student teachers experiment with alternative ways to incorporate the project goals into the subject matter areas in which they are teaching. Some of the methods used may be successful and others may not, but this is a time for flexibility in exploring different teaching/learning strategies and developing skills to work with people. The project handbook developed by the Design Team is one resource used by student teachers in integrating the goals and developing a working balance of cognitive, affective, and action learnings in all the subject matter areas.

Seminars

The seminar is a place for students to work toward self-growth, to process experiences they have had while they are in the base schools, and to make connections between theory and practice. During the first quarter of the experience, on-campus seminars are scheduled for half days and full days when students are not in the base schools. During the second quarter of the experience, a weekly seminar is scheduled.

Through the seminar, student teachers can learn from each other. Staff at the University become facilitators in: (a) helping students explore ways of dealing with problems that have been encountered, (b) discovering different ways of teaching, and (c) encouraging student teachers to be responsible for their own learning. The seminar provides positive reinforcement and a psychological support system for student teachers, who feel free to "try out" teaching strategies and to explore and examine responses from the group.

The Extended Professional Educational Experience is not a series of courses, but an integration of the professional education courses and student teaching. Educational Foundations and Curriculum and Instruction staff members act as resource persons while students learn concepts of human growth and learning, and how to choose appropriate materials for different levels of learning. Students feel that closer and clearer connections are made between learnings and the experiences they are having in the real classroom situation.

An important aspect of the seminar is the close trusting relationship that develops between faculty members and student teachers. The informal and relaxed setting provides a security that the student teachers seem to need while they are still searching for their own style of teaching. This relationship encourages more risk taking and helps to facilitate personal growth. In the seminars, the staff and prospective teachers are working together, testing and improving ways of fostering positive growth in children.

EVALUATION OF THE STUDENT TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Several methods are used to evaluate the effectiveness of the student teacher experience during the two quarters. Processes as well as outcomes are assessed. Evaluation is shared with the student teacher and is used to reinforce strengths and help the student change ineffective ways of teaching.

Evaluation is used to provide information to foster the growth of student teachers, to examine the strengths and weaknesses of teaching effectiveness, and to certify teachers after graduation from college. Different methods of evaluation are: an assessment form completed by the student teachers, cooperating teacher, and staff of the EPEE program; a log kept by the student teacher; staff observations of the student teacher in a teaching situation; conferences with the student teacher and cooperating teacher; individual conferences with the student teacher and project staff; feedback in seminars; feedback from students of the student teacher; and the Personal Orientation Inventory. The synthesizing of this information strengthens the evaluation.

Assessment Form

The instrument which was developed to provide assessment and feedback covers the eight goal areas of the project, and two additional areas which relate to methods of teaching and the attitude of the student teacher. Under each stated goal are listed behaviors and attitudes which indicate whether the student teacher is working toward the stated goals. Student teachers are asked to use this instrument as a working document and to cite examples of how these behaviors and attitudes are visible when they are teaching. The cooperating teacher working with the student teacher also completes the form, as do the EPEE staff, after observing the student teacher. This three-way feedback provides positive reinforcement and highlights areas in which the student teacher needs to improve.

Student Logs

From the beginning of the two-quarter experience, student teachers are asked to keep a log of experiences, personal growth, feelings, changes in values, and whatever else they may think important to include. The program staff periodically read the logs and record on the assessment form evidence of the student teachers' perception of behaviors and attitudes in the classroom.

Observation of the Student Teacher

The staff working with the student teacher in the seminars also work with the student in the field experience. The close relationship that is built lessens the threat to the student teacher from staff observations in the cooperating schools. Observations are weekly and sometimes biweekly, and a staff member will often be asked to visit the class to help determine how well a new method or technique is working. These observations provide information on the student teacher's classroom behavior, as well as a check on information gleaned from self-reporting techniques. After the observations, the staff member and the student teacher evaluate what has happened. Thus the student teacher receives immediate feedback.

The observations are not a preoccupation with methods, materials, and techniques used to structure experiences for cognitive development. Cognitive development is important, but affective development becomes equally important in the development of the total person. Observations are based on how the student teacher provides for pupil-initiated activity, spontaneity, and self-exploration, and how well the student teacher understands affective development, as demonstrated by modeling empathic, understanding behaviors and allowing pupils to be participants in their own learning. This kind of evaluation does not fit easily into a standard research design.

Conferences with the Student Teacher, Cooperating Teacher, and Staff

These conferences encourage feedback between the student teacher, the staff, and the cooperating teacher in the base school. Because all three components are working toward the same goals, the student teacher becomes a peer of the staff and cooperating teacher as facilitators of learning.

Conferences are held whenever anyone feels they are needed, and always when staff members are visiting the base school. An individual conference is scheduled with each student teacher at the end of the two-quarter experience, and the staff, student teacher, and cooperating teachers complete the evaluation of the student teacher's experience. This evaluation, which is included in the student's placement folder after graduation, describes competencies, behaviors, and attitudes of the student teacher in working toward the goal areas of the program.

Feedback from Pupils of the Student Teacher

The program staff and one representative each from Curriculum and Instruction and Educational Psychology developed an instrument to assess the perceptions of the pupils in the student teacher classroom. The instrument is composed of statements taken from the specific objectives relating to each goal. Examples are: "My student teacher likes me," "My student teacher lets me try different methods in finding an answer," "My student teacher does not let me find out about things I am interested in." The pupils respond to the statements by checking "I agree,"

"Sometimes it is like this," or "I disagree." Responses are weighted and tabulated, and a profile is drawn.

The student teacher and cooperating teacher administer the instrument at the end of each of the two quarters. Feedback provides the staff with information for seminar topics and gives student teachers an indication of how the pupils perceive their modeling behavior and attitudes.

Personal Orientation Inventory

The POI is administered to each student at the beginning of the two-quarter experience. After scoring and tabulation, the profile is shared with the student teacher. Through processing data about emotions, feelings, self-perception, and valuing, the student teacher recognizes that the causes of behavior lie in the individual's perceptions and beliefs about self and the world.

At the end of the two-quarter experience, the POI is administered a second time. Comparison of the pre- and posttests is made to determine what growth took place during the two quarters, and results are shared with the student teacher. Consideration of the individual as capable of growing and changing behaviors and attitudes is in keeping with the eight process goals. Since persons have different experiences at varying times and under constantly changing conditions, judgments and inferences about interactions should be made only after many attempts to learn about individuals and to help them learn about themselves.

Accumulated data resulting from administration of the POI to HEED project students indicate significantly more growth in all scales at the end of the two-quarter experience than is shown by students who have gone through the traditional one-quarter student teaching experience. This difference was evident in the first year the experience was piloted; and project students exhibited even greater growth during the second year because of improved staff planning, cooperation, rapport between staff and participants, and intensive efforts aimed at integration of HEED goals into all areas of participant activity.

In the third year of the project, the effort was intensified to determine whether combining the professional education courses and student teaching affects the kinds of growth that take place in students and whether consciously focusing on the eight process goals in the teaching process makes a difference in their growth. The Personal Orientation Inventory was used to collect data from four groups: students who were enrolled in the Extended Professional Educational Experience, students who took the professional education courses in sequence during the junior and senior years, students enrolled in a one-quarter student teaching experience, and students who enrolled in the Secondary Education Block and later had a one-quarter student teaching experience. At the end of two quarters, the Extended Professional Educational Experience students were more self-actualizing than any of the other three groups.

Although the numbers in the groups tested were limited, analysis of the findings showed that the Extended Experience fostered growth toward the eight process goals of Project HEED. With conscious emphasis placed

on the goals in the teaching/learning process, growth toward the goals and toward self-actualization did occur.

The project's findings corroborate the results of POI use in other teacher education settings. A 1966 study by H. M. Dandes concluded that there was a significant relationship between measured self-actualizing and important values and attitudes of teachers. Dandes' study, which utilized both the POI and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, found that the greater the amount of self-actualizing, the greater the possession of attitudes and values which are characteristic of effective teaching.⁷

Research by R. A. Pines in 1970 with students enrolled in an introductory teacher education course examined the outcomes of student-centered and instructor-centered study conditions. Pines found that, under instructor-centered conditions, students who were more self-actualizing showed a greater mastery of the subject but a less favorable attitude toward teaching as a career.⁸

The project staff believes the POI research shows that, in making the HEED goals operational, prospective teachers do gain personal skills in the areas which the POI measures. A conscious and deliberate focus on the eight process goals results in positive growth. It also seems evident that an integration of methods, educational psychology, human relations, and student teaching during two quarters provides a more meaningful and related experience than the other options in teacher education at Mankato State University. Continuation of this research is planned in order to assess whether changes, positive or negative, occur during and after the first year of teaching.

In addition to the POI results, there is also documented evidence of skill growth in the eight process goals which students in the Extended Professional Educational Experience have made operational in the public school classroom. The staff believes this information is important and necessary for evaluation and recommendation for certification. Such documented data in the eight goal areas are not available for students in the other groups.

INSTITUTIONALIZATION

The full extent of the direct and indirect impact on the teacher education program, University staff, public school teachers, and students is difficult to assess. It seems safe to say, however, that after the Extended Experience, participants are less apt to be satisfied with "the way things are" in schools in the late 1970s.

Some directions for the future are definite: (a) a University-wide committee has been established to further the project goals and concepts throughout the institution; (b) a School of Education committee will be established to help with continuation of inservice for University staff and public school teachers, and to continue the Extended Professional Educational Experience; (c) a small, but specific, budget will be provided

⁷ Robert R. Knapp. Handbook for the Personal Orientation Inventory. San Diego, Calif.: Edits Publishers, 1976. p. 40.

⁸ Knapp, p. 41.

by the Dean's office to help with inservice work; (d) attempts are being made to find ways of reassigning staff to work with the Extended Experience.

SUMMARY

In the Eighth Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools,⁹ respondents were asked what personal qualities they would look for in their children's teachers. The qualities most often named were: (a) the ability to communicate, to understand, to relate; (b) the ability to discipline, be firm and fair; (c) the ability to inspire, motivate the child; (d) high moral character, (e) love of children, concern for them; (f) dedication to teaching profession, enthusiasm; (g) friendly, good personality; (h) good personal appearance, cleanliness.¹⁰

These responses indicate that the ideal teacher is one who models desired behavior for the young. In the same way, the eight goals of Project HEED are competencies which many teachers have long wished to achieve or demonstrate. One of the greatest impacts of the project has been the combining of active participation in the theory and practice of the goals with an emphasis on related modeling extending from the university teacher through the student teacher to the pupil in the classroom.

The efforts of Project HEED can help to alleviate the concerns of youths, as expressed in an extensive interview study of how young people throughout the world view the future. Young people consistently see three areas of concern which schools need to address: (a) schools, as well as homes, need to communicate more effectively with youth, since many of them feel they communicate solely with their peers and are thus in a communication vacuum; (b) schools need to show they care about young people as individuals; and (c) schools need to help youth cope with the increased change and complexity of the world.¹¹

Prospective teachers involved with Project HEED are working to become teachers able to create, with the active participation of their pupils, a self-enhancing learning environment. Through this experience we hope teachers will be able to demonstrate that trust, caring, and openness enhance a pupil's sense of self-esteem and that students can be "turned on" to learning. The ultimate aim of the Extended Professional Educational Experience is for teachers to learn how to personalize and humanize the learning environment for students.

⁹ George H. Gallup. "Eighth Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools." Phi Delta Kappan 58 (2): 187-200; October 1976.

¹⁰ Gallup, p. 195.

¹¹ Catherine McKenzie Shane. "Coping, Caring, Communicating: Youth Looks at the Future." Phi Delta Kappan 58 (1): 119; September 1976.

HIP--AN ALTERNATIVE PROGRAM
FOR THE PREPARATION OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS
University of Missouri--Columbia

Robert L. Burton

The HIP program is an alternative program for the preparation of elementary teachers at the University of Missouri--Columbia. HIP incorporates several features:

1. It concentrates the entire professional training component into three full-time semester blocks, one per year.
2. It correlates daily didactics with daily field experiences.
3. Each student becomes a member of a learning community in an open-space Individually Guided Education (IGE) school.
4. The university faculty and the students form a Learning Community and function in an open-space university classroom.
5. Humanistic, drug, media, and career education activities are stressed throughout.
6. A low advisor-advisee ratio allows for increased individualization of programming and opportunities for the development of close personal relationships.
7. The program offers students in preservice training the opportunity to model teaching behaviors exemplified by the Learning Community faculty.

In the spring 1973 a special committee representing the College of Education of the University of Missouri--Columbia and the Columbia Public School District decided to plan and implement an alternative program for the preparation of elementary teachers. It was determined that the basic model to be developed would be a higher education adaptation of the Charles F. Kettering Foundation's /I/D/E/A/ (Institute for the Development of Educational Activities) Change Program for Individually Guided Education (IGE). A modified statement of IGE's process goals established both the philosophy and the name of the program:

A process of humanizing, individualizing, and personalizing learning by tailoring instructional approaches to individual differences rather than requiring all prospective teachers to learn in the same way and at the same pace; and

A process for continuous improvement which makes it possible for prospective teachers to evaluate their own performance in a clinical

context, alter their instructional procedures where indicated, and advance toward successively higher levels of effective teaching.

The three words from the first process goal--humanizing, individualizing, and personalizing--suggested the acronym HIP, by which the program is now known.

AN IGE MODEL

Research reports by Steere (1972), Pavan (1973), Klausmeier et al. (1971), Nelson (1972), Ironside (1972), and Pellegrin (1969) have provided solid evidence of the desirable effects of the Multi-Unit* organization of the IGE model for curriculum improvement in the elementary school setting. Both the UMC College of Education and the Columbia Public Schools were in a position to offer unique contributions to an alternative teacher education program developed on IGE principles. The Columbia District had implemented IGE in three of its elementary schools by the 1974-75 school year, and the University Laboratory School became an IGE school in fall 1974. These four schools were available to offer excellent practicum experiences for students in the HIP program. The College of Education's Center for Educational Improvement (CEI), an agency qualified to assist schools in implementing IGE change programs, provided the clinical training necessary to prepare College faculty to operate from an IGE model. During the 1973-74 academic year and into the fall of 1974, College faculty members representing the subject methods courses normally taken by elementary majors were restructuring their course materials around behavioral objectives, alternative learning styles, and alternative assessment methods to facilitate the individualization of programming for HIP participants. In addition, the College's Career Education Project and the Department of Health and Physical Education were qualified to offer expertise in the key areas of career and drug education.

In spring 1974 the Center for Educational Improvement received from the Alcohol and Drug Abuse Education Program, U.S. Office of Education, a request for proposals for demonstration projects which would "institute changes in teacher training institutions which will prepare teachers better to promote positive growth and development and to intervene in self- and socially-destructive behavior (exemplified by alcohol and drug abuse) in young people." Since the philosophy implicit in the USOE statement coincided with the theoretical framework and goals of HIP, the Center submitted a proposal which was accepted and funded for a three-year period.

UNIQUE CHARACTERISTICS

The HIP program is based in part on the assumption that the development of human relationships is part of the total learning process, and that both teachers and students need such relationships from the beginning.

* A Multi-Unit classroom is an open classroom unit containing children of more than one age level.

HIP utilizes a learning community and advisor concept to facilitate the growth of personal relationships.

The Learning Community

On the assumption that the success of a program such as HIP requires that all persons involved be enthusiastic about and believe in what is being attempted, it was decided at the outset that all participants--faculty, students, school principals, and cooperating teachers--would be volunteers. In fall 1973, faculty members representing the various elementary curriculum areas were informed of the design of the alternative program and were given the opportunity to join with the University Laboratory School principal and teachers in an inservice clinical training experience which was necessary to implement the IGE change program. In fall 1974 the remainder of the University Learning Community (ULC) was recruited and a ULC Leader was named.

The ULC now includes an associate dean, the laboratory school principal, three professors, six associate professors, two assistant professors, four instructors, one research associate, two IGE consultants, and 112 students. All specialized academic areas required to conduct the program are represented in the Community. The Learning Community:

- Selects broad educational goals to be emphasized by the Learning Community
- Practices role specialization and a division of labor among members in planning, implementing, and assessing
- Makes decisions regarding the arrangements of time, facilities, materials, staff, and students within the Learning Community
- Analyzes and improves its operation as a group.

Other features of the ULC include a system for providing constructive feedback about teacher performance and personalized inservice programs developed and implemented by the ULC staff.

Advisor Concept

The HIP program has incorporated the IGE advisor concept into its design: each professor assumes primary responsibility for guiding the education of a percentage of the Learning Community's students. This advisor function is a natural extension of the traditional teacher-student relationship and can be divided into three areas of concern: (a) human development, (b) program planning and assessment, and (c) supervision of field experiences.

Advisors are responsible for ensuring that each advisee learns how to learn, and are concerned with providing meaningful programs which are adapted to the individual needs of specific learners. In Learning Community planning meetings, advisors help to design learning environments with the needs of particular advisees in mind. In formal and

informal meetings with individual students, they explain the available choices of objectives and learning activities and guide students in making selections based on a knowledge of what is appropriate for a particular student at a particular time.

As part of the preparation for implementation, members of the ULC who were to serve as advisors prepared brief personalized autobiographical sketches, which were collected and mailed to each of the students who had volunteered for the new program. Students were asked to read the sketches and select their first, second, and third choices for an advisor. Results were tabulated and students assigned; in all cases it was possible to assign an advisor of the student's first or second choice.

PROGRAM DESIGN

The HIP program is offered in three 16 semester-hour blocks normally taken over a three-year period. Each block correlates a field experience with university classroom activities. The student is a member of both a Learning Community in a participating IGE elementary school and the University IGE Learning Community. Students spend a third of each day with the assigned elementary school Learning Community. When not on field assignments, they participate in didactic activities which are designed in two- or three-week increments, scheduled at least one week in advance, and conducted in an open-space classroom available to HIP students 14 hours a day.

Professional training embraces the laboratory, clinical, and small group seminar approach to professional preparation. The didactic content in each HIP block is to varying degrees competency-based and is to a large extent organized around behavioral objectives, instructional alternatives, and alternative assessment procedures.

Figure 1
THE HIP PROGRAM

Drug Education	Media	HIP Block I (First Year) Integration of Field Experience and Didactics	Humanistic Education	Career Education
		HIP Block II (Second Year) Integration of Field Experience and Didactics		
		HIP Block III (Third Year) Integration of Field Experience and Didactics		

Note: For one academic year and the interim semesters between HIP blocks, each student in the Learning Community is enrolled in academic courses of the University in order to complete general requirements.

Each of the three blocks concentrates on a specific set of content areas. Block I emphasizes growth, development and learning, classroom organization and management, and the teaching of reading, language arts, and science; Block II, history and philosophy of education, measurement and evaluation, and the teaching of mathematics, social studies, and physical education; Block III, the teaching of art, music, and literature for children. The three blocks contain correlated activities related to drug abuse, career education, media utilization, and humanistic education. Field experiences in the first two blocks are valued at five semester hours each; the third block field experience is for eight weeks full time, and the student earns eight semester hours of credit. Figure 1 illustrates the basic design of the HIP program.

Each student accepted for the HIP alternative is required to: (a) meet basic course prerequisites, (b) make a statement of commitment to elementary education, (c) indicate in writing the intention of completing the program at UMC, and (d) have academic ability test scores and/or academic performance data sufficient to predict probable success in the program.

To assure continuity in the program and to facilitate scheduling, the University Learning Community developed and adopted an overall plan for recruiting groups of students and offering the three blocks of the program. The first group of students to enter HIP in the winter semester of 1975 was designated Group 1 and included 80 elementary majors. Group 2 (23 students) entered the program in the 1976 winter semester; they continued with Block II the following semester in order to establish a fall cycle (see Figure 2). Group 3 (34 students) began Block I on January 15, 1977.

Figure 2
HIP ORGANIZATIONAL DESIGN

Group	74-75		75-76		76-77		77-78		78-79		79-80		80-81	
	F	W	F	W	F	W	F	W	F	W	F	W	F	W
1		I		II		III								
2			I	II			III							
3					I		II		III					
4							I		II		III			
5									I		II		III	

Even numbered groups are recruited primarily from 1st semester sophomore students. Odd numbered groups are recruited primarily from 2nd semester sophomores. Groups 6, 7, 8, . . . will continue in the same pattern established here.

The Planning Phase

In fall 1974 a series of weekend retreats and other shorter meetings involving the ULC were conducted for planning purposes. In one of the earlier of these meetings a set of "We Agree" statements, which serve as guidelines for HIP, were formulated and adopted:

We Agree that human learning is personal, continuous, and occurs through a variety of learning modes and in different environments.

We Agree that the advisor-advisee relationship should focus on academic and personal concerns and be characterized by mutual openness and trust.

We Agree that the program should be flexible, a product of learning community interaction, and consistent with learning program goals.

We Agree that decisions affecting the learning community as a group are the responsibility of the learning community.

Another guideline for the ULC was a statement which appeared in the request for funding proposal to the USOE:

. . . that an effective drug abuse prevention program must be based upon a sound educational program that affects students by (1) increasing their self-awareness, (2) contributing to their development of a more positive self-concept, and (3) developing their skills in the areas of communicating, valuing, and decision making.

During the planning phase representatives kept personnel in the four cooperating IGE schools informed about the upcoming program. Before the implementation date (January 1975), the University Learning Community and the teachers and principals from the participating IGE schools met to discuss details of the program and to solicit volunteers to serve as cooperating teachers. Without exception, the Learning Community teachers requested that they be assigned HIP students. During the first semester of the program, 4 principals and 30 teachers participated.

Implementation

The first week of the 1975 winter semester was devoted to orientation for the 80 freshman and sophomore students who made up the initial group. Activities included get acquainted (personalizing and humanizing) exercises; a session with each of the faculty members who would be responsible for teaching in a didactic area; assignment of field stations; meetings with school building principals, cooperating teachers, and advisors; and meetings with peers to work out mutual problems (such as transportation to participating schools).

Since a third of the students were on field assignments at any one time during the day, all didactic activities were scheduled twice. The use of time bands--8:15-10:30, 10:45-12:30, and 1:00-3:30--was helpful in the scheduling process. A design team composed of members of the University Learning Community (ULC) who were actively involved in Block I teaching met regularly to prepare the weekly schedule. Advisors met weekly with their advisees to monitor progress and emerging problems. The full ULC met at least once every two weeks for feedback from the teaching faculty, cooperating teachers, students, and advisors.

Students were encouraged to work on didactic content which was most relevant and useful in their ongoing experiences in the classroom. This allowed them to concentrate on one or two content areas at a given time, and to attend to other areas later in the semester. This flexibility led to serious problems for a number of students by midterm. Many had not previously taken such extensive responsibility for their own learning and, consequently, some were unable to use their time effectively to assure completion of all assignments within the semester. The anxiety level of the entire Learning Community was so high by midsemester that many were beginning to doubt the program could survive. Some students were threatening to quit. Several teachers were extremely frustrated by the seeming lack of student appreciation for all the time and effort they had expended to improve the training program.

Much of this dissatisfaction and frustration was exposed and dealt with in a Learning Community meeting. As a result, adjustments were made that reaffirmed the individualized aspects of the program. Individual students, working with their advisors, modified their goals for the semester by deciding which of the content areas (such as reading, science, language arts) should be dropped or left incomplete. This seemed to relieve much of the pressure and allowed each student to complete that portion of the block which could be accomplished in the remaining weeks of the semester. The morale of all participants rose from that point on.

Data collected at the end of the semester showed that:

1. Seventy-nine of the original eighty students completed the semester.
2. Seventy-two students planned to continue with Block II the following year.
3. Sixty students planned to continue with their assigned advisor (twelve requested an advisor change).
4. Eleven students dropped one or more of their courses (eight dropped reading).
5. Thirty-seven students opted for an incomplete in one or more of their courses (science was the course most often selected for an incomplete).
6. The average number of semester hours earned was 15.6 per student (an average of 1.0 semester hours, originally incomplete, was added at a later date).
7. The grade point average for the 79 students completing the 1975 winter semester was 3.485 on a 4.0 scale (the range was 2.166 to 4.0).

A set of bipolar statements elicited students' responses, on a six-interval scale, to nine characteristics of the program. According to the majority of the students, HIP had too little structure, classwork was too demanding, perceptions of the field experience were about equally divided between too demanding and not demanding enough, classwork was not sufficiently related to field experience, the program was too time consuming, not enough emphasis was placed on humanizing, personalizing, and individualizing, and there was too little time with the advisor. Since the HIP program emphasized each of these aspects for the first time, these responses seem to indicate that once the students had a "taste," they apparently wanted even more. It should be noted, however, that on most characteristics student responses tended to group in the spaces adjacent to the midpoint, indicating that most students perceived HIP at neither extreme, but about right.

EVALUATION METHODS AND RESULTS

HIP was evaluated for the USOE by ABT Associates, Inc., Cambridge, Massachusetts. In addition, data on self-concept and learning preference factors have been collected by the program staff, using a pre/posttesting, experimental/control group research design. Testimonial data have been obtained from students, cooperating teachers, and school principals. A plan for followup of graduates has been formulated and will be implemented one year after placement in classrooms of the first graduates of the program.

Results of the self-concept and learning preference factor research and testimonials from cooperating teachers are reported here so the reader may ascertain the extent to which the HIP program has reached its goals.

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale Data

It was hypothesized that the HIP program would have a positive effect on participants' self-concepts as a result of the programmatic attempts to humanize, individualize, and personalize their training. To test this hypothesis, the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) was administered at the beginning of the students' participation in the project, and readministered at the end of the first semester of training (winter 1975) and at the end of each succeeding year in the program. Data are reported for the first group enrolled in the program and include the pretest and posttest scores after one semester and after five semesters. Comparative data were collected for a control group of students enrolled in the conventional elementary teacher education program. On both the counseling and clinical forms of the TSCS, only those scales deemed meaningful in the context of the program were analyzed. Variability, distribution, and time scores on the counseling form were omitted as relatively meaningless for this investigation, and net conflict scores on the clinical form were not analyzed since they seemed less meaningful than total conflict scores. The number of deviant signs score from the clinical form was also omitted from the analysis.

To determine whether there were initial differences in self-concept between the experimental (HIP) subjects and control subjects, t-tests

for the differences between mean scores were calculated. Results indicated no statistically significant differences for any of the variables of interest; it was therefore concluded that the two groups were not different with regard to self-concept at the beginning of the study.

At the end of the fifth semester (or third year) of the program, analysis of the TSCS pre- and posttest data for the control group (n=29) indicated no statistically significant changes in mean scores for the 17 variables considered pertinent to this study. It would appear from these data that the conventional program had little or no effect on the self-concepts of participating students as measured by the TSCS.

HIP students' TSCS scores after one semester in the program showed statistically significant changes:

1. In the self-criticism score--indicating an increased normal, healthy openness and capacity for self-criticism ($t = 3.27$, p less than .002)
2. In the self-satisfaction score--indicating greater satisfaction with the way the person sees himself/herself ($t = 1.96$, p less than .05)
3. In the personal self score--reflecting the person's sense of personal worth and adequacy ($t = 2.25$, p less than .03)
4. In the general maladjustment scale--indicating lower tendency to be classified as a psychiatric patient and more toward non-patient status ($t = 1.96$, p less than .05).

After five semesters in the program, and taking into consideration only the 34 subjects for whom all data were available and who completed their teacher education program as of May 1977, 14 of the 17 scales showed statistically significant pre-post test changes. Many of these changes were highly significant, and all were in a positive or favorable direction. On the counseling form, the following changes were noted:

1. A highly significant increase in the total positive score--the most important single score on the counseling form reflecting overall self-esteem and personal worth ($t = 5.59$, p less than .0001)
2. Continued increase (from the first posttest) in openness and capacity for self-criticism ($t = 3.84$, p less than .001)
3. Significant increases in all subscores of the total positive score: Identity--"What I Am" ($t = 4.05$, p less than .0001); Self-Satisfaction--"How I Feel About Myself" ($t = 5.25$, p less than .0001); and Behavior--"What I Do" or "How I Act" ($t = 4.04$, p less than .0001)

Figure 3
LEARNING PREFERENCE FACTORS SUMMARY

Pretest Differences

HIP/Control*

Project evaluation
Praise from teacher--publicly
Listener
Field trips
Laboratory experiments
Tutoring
Periodicals
Phono records
Resource files
Models
Paired learning
Tutorial--teach another
Independent--by oneself
No preference (sex)
No preference (age)
No preference (structure)

Control/HIP*

Male (teachers)
Under 40 (teachers)
Structured

*Note: HIP/Control denotes those preferences which were chosen by HIP students significantly more often than by the control subjects. Control/HIP denotes those preferences which were chosen by the control subjects significantly more often than by HIP students.

Posttest Differences

HIP/Control*

Observation (evaluation)
Project evaluation
Thinking about things
Graduation credits
Sense of accomplishment
Avid reader
Discussions--student led
Field trips
Laboratory experiments
Simulation
Periodicals
Phono records
Resource files
Models
Large groups/lectures, movies
Small groups/3-10
Paired learning
Independent--by oneself
Problem of immediate concern
No preference (age)
Nonstructured

Control/HIP*

Standardized tests
Take home/open book tests
Discussions--teacher led
Nonsequential
Problems of future concern
Under 40 (age)
Structured

4. An increase in the physical self score--the way the person views his/her body, state of health, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality ($t = 3.23$, p less than .003)
5. A continued increase in the individual's sense of personal worth and adequacy ($t = 5.19$, p less than .0001)
6. An increase in the family self score--indicating more positive feelings of adequacy, worth, and value as a family member ($t = 5.00$, p less than .0001)
7. An increase in the social self score--the self as perceived in relation to others on the basis of social interaction ($t = 3.47$, p less than .001).

On the clinical form, scores for the experimental (HIP) subjects showed statistically significant changes in the direction of less total conflict (less confusion, contradiction, and general conflict in self-perception) and less tendency toward general maladjustment, psychosis, neurosis, and personality disorder.

These data provide convincing evidence of steady improvement of the self-concepts for HIP participants and distinguish them from members of the control group who were trained in the conventional manner.

Learning Preference Profile Data

As part of the initial testing of Group 1, the /I/D/E/A/ Learning Preference Profile was administered. The instrument was readministered at the end of the first semester (winter 1975) of the HIP program. Control data were obtained by pre- and posttesting (winter 1975 semester) sophomore elementary majors who had chosen not to enter the program.

The Learning Preference Profile solicits the subject's preferences from a large variety of learning modes under eight categorical factor headings: Evaluation Preference Factors, Motivational Preference Factors, Teacher Preference Factors, Reward Preference Factors, Activity Preference Factors, Media Preference Factors, Grouping Preference Factors, and Task Preference Factors. It was hypothesized that students who would opt for a program advertised as less structured and more flexible than the conventional program would prefer a wider variety of learning and assessment modes than those who would choose not to participate.

The data obtained from the pre- and posttesting of the experimental (HIP) and control groups were analyzed by converting all responses to percentages and testing the differences between percentages at the .05 level of confidence. Pretest data identified 16 factors preferred significantly more often by HIP students, while only 3 factors were preferred more often by the control group. Posttest data identified a total of 21 factors preferred by HIP students versus 7 preferred more often by the controls.

The Learning Preference Factors Summary (Figure 3) clearly indicates the greater preference of HIP students for a diversity of learning and motivational modes and evaluation methods.

Cooperating Teachers--Testimonials

Near the end of Block II (winter 1976 semester) cooperating teachers were asked to respond to three questions about their experience with the HIP aides assigned to their Learning Communities:

1. In comparison with other aides and student teachers you have had assigned to you, how would you rate HIP aides?
2. If differences are perceivable, to what would you attribute these differences?
3. In your opinion, how effective has the effort been to integrate course theory with classroom experience?

Sample responses to each question convey the general tone of cooperating teachers' feelings about their experiences with the students participating in HIP.

Question 1: In comparison with other aides and student teachers you have had assigned to you, how would you rate HIP aides?

"I find there is a difference between HIP aides and other aides. One is that the HIP aides have a plan, something that they are working for, whereas some of the other aides I've had are just coming in to aide and receive credit; their background of experiences hasn't been that much. They just seem to come in and grade papers. The HIP girls are here for a definite purpose. They know they are going to be teachers. They are coming in and trying to get everything they can out of it. This, of course, makes a difference in their attitudes and their own personal motivation. This is quite evident in the projects they do, and they often ask me if I can let them incorporate their ideas into the classroom experience. I am flexible enough to say yes. As a result they get more experience by using their own ideas when working with the children. A lot of student teachers don't have that experience."

"I feel the HIP aides are really prepared to work in the classroom. I think probably the strongest point of the whole experience is their supervision. They know that whenever there is a problem there are at least two or three people they can go to. I hear them talking about their instructors and it is so different from when I was in school. We just didn't get to know our instructors or professors as well. I know there is more involvement in small groups, working on a one-to-one basis. So I know that when problems do arise they can go to their advisor, their instructors, or myself. Everyone is working together, which makes a big difference."

Question 2: If differences are perceivable, to what would you attribute these differences?

"By having field experiences early in the program, they are better able to see how their methods courses apply to real classroom situations. Also, having contact with a variety of children gives them a frame of reference as they learn about individual learning and behavior patterns."

"Differences between the HIP aides and regular aides can be attributed to the fact that the HIP program is organized so that the student has some direction in her own program. She is able to correlate her coursework with the work the children are doing in the classroom. Also, she avoids repetition and is better able to build experiences in various areas of coursework and classroom experience."

"Part, I'm sure, is the fact that they are in the classroom more. They are having more experiences with children. But you can't discount the fact of the personality, the selection of the students in the program, too. I guess I have to look back to even the first year. We felt that quite a few of our girls were superior. And they hadn't had that many more experiences than others we've had coming to us. Maybe it's the time span: the fact that they get to rotate and change and get all aspects of the day at an early point in their experiences."

"The setup of the program: getting involved as a freshman or sophomore rather than waiting until one's last semester. They are getting a full view of what goes on in the classroom by the time they are finished. It is much easier for them to go into the teaching field with this experience."

Question 3: In your opinion, how effective has the effort been to integrate course theory with classroom experience?

"The effort to integrate classroom experience with coursework has been effective because instructors at the university have remained flexible. When assignments are given, the student can modify the assignment so the class benefits from the lesson as well. Without this flexibility the HIP aide would be doing unrelated work which would be something less than beneficial to her and to my class."

"In my opinion, of what I've seen of the effectiveness of course integration with the classroom experience, it has been tremendous. I feel that many of the ideas that the HIP aides are introduced to, they do bring back into the classroom and that they try to make them work for the student. I've seen fantastic organization on the part of the HIP aide that I've had. He's very good at analyzing a task and bringing it down to the level or up to the level of the child. I feel that this probably is to a great extent due to the training that he has had within the university and through his coursework because I feel that since he has had to experience this himself he has been able to bring it back to the child in the classroom."

CONCLUSION

Based on the data currently available, HIP appears to be a relatively successful attempt to include in a single program workable adaptations of some of the most promising new thrusts in teacher education. It incorporates (to varying degrees) philosophies and concepts from the Individually Guided Education (IGE) and the Performance Based Teacher Education (PBTE) movements. It meets the demands of students and practitioners for earlier and expanded field experiences which are correlated more directly with classroom theory. It deals with the problems of drugs, sexism, and racism in the schools. It provides students with an awareness of the humanistic and career education movements and opportunities to become involved. In addition, it serves as a mechanism to bring teacher educators and practitioners together in the decision-making process for the purpose of enhancing the educational experiences of all concerned: schoolchildren, college students in training, cooperating teachers, and teacher educators--a true symbiotic relationship.

On May 14, 1977, 34 participants completed this unique program, received their degrees, and prepared to enter the teaching profession. Another 35 students will complete the program in December 1977.

HIP has been incorporated into the ongoing offerings of the College of Education, University of Missouri--Columbia. Students selecting elementary teaching as their career goal can now make a choice to plan their programs around either the HIP design or the conventional program.

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A COMPETENCY-BASED AFFECTIVE PROGRAM
FOR PRESERVICE TEACHERS
University of Houston

D. D. Edwards

Substance abuse is but one of many inappropriate responses of our young people to the pressures of living in today's society. We are constantly being made aware of other self or socially destructive responses, such as school vandalism, juvenile delinquency, increased drop-out rates, and student unrest.

Rather than helping students deal with the human problems they face, schools in the past two decades have added their own unique set of forces. Such writers as Friedenberg (1965), Holt (1964), Jackson (1968), Silberman (1970), and Heath (1971) have documented how certain features of the schools have contributed to the pressures faced by students.

The traditional function of education has been to teach students about the past and prepare them with academic skills for the present and immediate future. Education has satisfied societal expectations of what the "well educated person" should know about language, history, science, literature, mathematics. Since 1957 a tremendous explosion of knowledge and technology has resulted in a rapidly expanding curriculum. With the increased focus on content and method, the feelings, emotions, and even the person of the learner are lost. The learner's needs are subjugated to the demands of the curriculum; development to content presentation; personal and process learning to factual learning.

In addressing this problem, Weinstein and Fantini (1970) said, "Rarely is curriculum designed to help the student deal in personal terms with the problems of human conduct." This raises the general question of relevance. Rogers (1969) said, "Significant learning takes place when the subject matter is perceived by the student as having relevance for his own purposes." The student, not society nor curriculum designers, is the critical variable in the matter of relevance.

In the past, teachers have been prepared primarily to disseminate information. But changing societal forces are bringing about a new role for the teacher, who is now being asked to do more than merely provide information. Drug education, sex education, vocational education, and family living education are but a few examples of the new demands on the education system. The objective of such programs is not to produce people who can converse intelligently in a particular subject, but rather to help people handle their personal lives more successfully in a society where external codes of behavior are rapidly changing. In effect, these demands for relevance in education call for a reduction in the discrepancy between the behavior of individuals in society and what the schools purport to teach.

To be effective, a program designed to have an impact on the personal life and behavior of its participants has to be more than a temporary response to an immediate crisis. Programs must be made relevant to the needs of the students in a changing society, must help students not only to handle academic experiences in the schools, but also to deal with the life experiences they encounter in the "real world." This requires a closer link between the affective and cognitive domains of the learner.

LIFE SKILLS COMPETENCIES

The most pressing and relevant need of learners today is to develop effective life skills: a set of knowledge, skill, and performance competencies which enable them to conduct their lives in a more fulfilling manner. At the core of the life skills is self-awareness--the awareness of one's own needs, interests, abilities, desires, attitudes, and values. Self-understanding forms the basis for effective decision making, problem solving, and the interpersonal skills of understanding, communicating with, and helping others. Additional competencies within the set of life skills are acceptance of one's own dignity and worth as well as the dignity and worth of others; the recognition of one's impact on others as well as the impact of others (family, friends, institutions) on one's own behavior; and the ability to control responses to that impact.

These life skills competencies are involved in the prevention of substance abuse or other abuses of self and society. Since student concerns do not appear only at certain times on certain days, all teachers must be attuned to both the immediate and future needs of their students. The teacher becomes a critical variable in changing student behavior. The success of any educational program, especially programs dealing with students' personal behavior, attitudes, and feelings, depends on the person and skills of the teacher. These skills, needed by all members of the educational team, must go beyond techniques for disseminating information. They must be applicable to the problems faced by students in a variety of environments, and must be applied differentially according to the needs of individual students. In short, they must be facilitative or helping skills.

The teacher is also a model for students. Patterson (1973) said, "It is the person of the teacher which is the most important factor in teaching and learning. It is therefore apparent that teacher education should focus upon the development of the person of the teacher. Teacher education must center upon the feelings, attitudes, and beliefs of the teacher, including . . . self concept."

The implication for training programs is that they should develop the life skills of the preservice teacher as well as impart the knowledge and process skills to facilitate students' acquisition of life skills competencies. Training programs must provide a model for the teacher to use. A warm and accepting atmosphere is needed so that trainees are able to deal openly with their concerns, and programs should then attend to those concerns. The teacher in turn should demonstrate the ability to establish a similar atmosphere in the classroom.

These life skills must permeate the total teacher preparation program of the institution. For this to happen, the total program must contain both cognitive and affective foci; provide for both didactic and experiential learning; allow for personalized instruction; and have a structure flexible enough to accommodate the integration of this component into the program.

THE HOUSTON MODEL

The following is a description of an attempt to institutionalize an affective program which focuses on the development of life skills into

the Competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE) program at the University of Houston.

In fall 1973 the University of Houston CBTE pilot program was expanded to include all preservice teachers. The five main characteristics of this program, as identified in "Competency-Based Teacher Education at the University of Houston" (Houston, 1974) are:

1. It is competency-based. Instructional goals and criteria for meeting them are stated in precise terms and known in advance by students.
2. The program is individualized. With assistance from faculty, students assume the responsibility for managing and pacing program components to meet their own needs.
3. The program is personalized, addressing itself to the feelings, motives, and concerns of prospective teachers.
4. The program is field-oriented. Many of the prospective teachers' CBTE experiences are in the schools working with teachers and pupils as teaching competencies are acquired and demonstrated.
5. The CBTE program is regenerative. Each program component is evaluated and modified after usage, so as to respond to the changing needs of society as well as the needs of prospective teachers.

A modularized instructional format has been adopted. Modules provide the base of the instructional delivery system designed to facilitate demonstration of learning objectives. This system allows modules and related groupings of modules, called components, to be placed in a meaningful order. One guide followed in sequencing modules and components is that each module must build on previous competencies.

Another, perhaps more overriding, guide is the Teacher Concerns Model developed by Frances Fuller. Fuller (1969, 1970b) identified three phases of teacher concerns through which prospective teachers move in a predictable sequence. The movement from one phase to another is influenced by experiences with teaching and the resolution of concerns in the previous phase. The first phase consists of teacher concerns about self as a person; unless previous life experiences have included either informal or vicarious teaching experience, the beginning prospective teacher is rarely concerned with teaching. In the second phase, the prospective teacher reflects concerns about self as a teacher, and three kinds of concerns related to task are raised: "Where do I stand?" "How adequate am I?" and "How do pupils feel about me?" The third phase involves concerns for pupils. These are concerns about impact, reflected in such teacher questions as: "Are pupils learning what I am teaching?" "Are pupils learning what they need?" and "How can I improve myself as a teacher?" (Fuller, 1969, 1970a). The Teacher Concerns Model provides the rationale and supporting research for ordering field-oriented and on-campus experiences as well as the sequencing of modules and components.

The expansion of the CBTE pilot program to incorporate all of the preservice training functions of the college brought about a tremendous strain on the Counselor Education Department, which initiated many of

the personalizing aspects of the program, and a number of the components funded under the pilot program had to be dropped. A proposal for an affectively-oriented drug education program which focused on the development of life skills competencies was forwarded to the U.S. Office of Education. Funds were awarded for the project to become one of a network of six demonstration projects in substance abuse prevention.

The main goals of the drug education project were: to develop instructional objectives, materials, and processes designed to facilitate trainees' acquisition of life skills and instructional competencies, which in turn could be used to facilitate the development of life skills in their students; and to institutionalize the instructional units developed into the total teacher preparation program. Operationally, this meant the translation of life skills into competency statements and learning objectives; the development, pilot testing, and refinement of student modules; the implementation of modules in selected sections; and, finally, the institutionalization of the modules into the total program.

The competency statements and learning objectives were derived from several sources, but primarily from A Framework for Crime Prevention and Drug Education in Texas: Desirable Teacher Competencies (Edwards, Potter, and Callender, 1975). They were organized into components such as self-awareness, interpersonal relations, values awareness, decision making, self-concept development and life-fulfilling alternatives. These components were then ordered in terms of the Fuller Teacher Concerns Model and the phases of the teacher preparation program.

INSTRUCTIONAL MODULES

Instructional materials and processes were developed and included in student modules which were pilot tested by the project staff with sample sections of the target population. Feedback from students and instructors in these groups was used in refining the modules. This process of feedback and refinement is a continuous activity of the project.

While the modules were being developed, the project was cooperating in college-wide developmental activities. The specific competency statements and learning objectives were aligned with the broad competency statements of the college and presented to the program development and management units of the college. As modules were developed they were also presented for approval before testing and implementation.

An example of a module developed and revised under this process is Affective Component: Interpersonal Relations I (Edwards and Silvers, 1977a). It is designed to help students meet College Generic Competencies 8, "Promotes effective patterns of classroom communication," and 12, "Identifies and reacts with sensitivity to the needs and feelings of self and others." This module is just one of several oriented toward these competencies.

After a brief introduction, the module lists the following objectives:

1. You will be able to identify possible barriers to effective communication between yourself and others that may arise from

differences such as race/ethnicity, sex, age, status, values, expectations, etc.

2. You will be able to identify your underlying feelings in given interpersonal situations.
3. You will be able to communicate your immediate feelings without acting on them.
4. You will be able to reflect the verbal content in the communication of others.
5. You will be able to reflect the surface feelings present in the communication of others.
6. You will be able to identify cues to nonverbal messages that others are communicating.
7. You will be able to identify some effective communication behaviors.
8. You will be able to demonstrate effective attending behaviors.
9. You will be able to identify communication elements that contribute to effective team membership.

The Self-Awareness module is identified as a prerequisite and a brief description of preassessment or "checking out" procedures is presented.

The learning alternatives for this module include: student participation in activities, conducted by the instructor, to help the student become more sensitive to teaching-learning concerns with regard to effective communication and to develop student skills leading to the establishment of facilitative learning conditions; selected readings from several books; an individual programmed learning activity; and several programmed activities, including audiotapes designed for use by two or more students. The student may opt to complete one or more of the alternatives, or may negotiate with the instructor to do something entirely different. The module also contains two appendices which are included among the learning alternatives.

The post-assessment requires students to describe, orally or in writing, the elements of interpersonal communication, and to exhibit behaviors demonstrating that they have met the module objectives. This judgment is made by peers and/or instructors.

IMPROVING THE MODEL

Early in the project, it became apparent that several changes or adjustments needed to be made. First, the project's developmental activities had to be adjusted to coincide with college-wide developmental activities attempting to coordinate and reexamine all components of the teacher preparation program. This change caused some delays, but

provided the project with a stronger base for becoming an integral part of the total program.

Second, much more interaction between the project staff and other faculty members was needed. Although the project had support from the college administration, it did not initially have a broad base of support among the faculty holding instructional responsibilities. Both formal and informal means were used to increase interaction. Inservice training, demonstrations, instructional team meetings, and team teaching sessions were scheduled. In addition, many informal meetings were held with team leaders and individual instructors. These sessions were intended to arouse faculty awareness of the need for affective development, to gain faculty support, to inform faculty of project developments, and to provide training in conducting module activities.

Third, because the learning alternatives included in the affective modules are unfamiliar to many teacher education faculty members, it became necessary to develop rather detailed facilitator guides to accompany the modules. These guides contain instructions for conducting alternative learning activities for individual students as well as for small or large groups.

The facilitator guide for the aforementioned module on interpersonal relations provides an overview of the module, an orientation to the activities within the guide, general suggestions to the facilitator, and detailed instructions for each activity. The facilitator is encouraged to use the guide flexibly and to alter or omit activities according to student needs. An example: "The potency of the ~~teacher~~ as a role model and the related importance of his/her effective communication with others are stressed in the module. As the facilitator of these exercises, you too will be serving as a role model. Generally, if you are open and candid and give some personal examples (self-disclosure) or on-the-spot affective reactions (be genuine), the students will be inclined to do likewise" (Edwards and Silvers, 1977b). Several suggestions for sharing of self or personal experiences are given.

The guide includes: "Introduction: Elements of Effective Communication," "Barriers to Effective Communication," "Communicating Feelings," "Empathy Training: An Introductory Exercise in Empathic Communication," and "Non-Verbal Communication: Identifying, Labeling, and Verifying Feelings of Non-Verbal Communication Cues." All of the activities call for the students to interact and develop their skills with each other.

PROJECT IMPACT

The initial impact of the project on the teacher preparation program is at the point that education students enter the program. At the University of Houston, and at all state-supported colleges in Texas, students cannot be identified as education students until after they have completed 45 hours of work. This means most students are second semester sophomores or first semester juniors when they enter the program. The college offers three certification options: elementary; secondary; and all-level, which includes Art, Music, Health, and Physical Education. All students take a two-semester sequence in Generic Teaching Competencies; it is in these two courses that the project interfaces with the total program.

The project requested, and was assigned, the primary responsibility for developing the learning objectives and modules for three of the generic competencies covered in these courses: (a) "Promotes effective patterns of classroom communication," (b) "Exhibits openness and flexibility," and (c) "Identifies and reacts with sensitivity to the needs and feelings of self and others." The modules developed for the first of these courses, or Phase I, focus on the person of the preservice teacher. Module titles for Phase I are Self-Awareness, Interpersonal Relations I, Values Awareness I, Decision Making I, and Life-Fulfilling Alternatives. Those developed for Phase II focus on task or the acquisition of facilitative skills. Module titles for Phase II are Self-Concept Development, Values Awareness II, Interpersonal Relations II, and Decision Making II: Group Process. An additional module, Integrated Teaching, is currently being developed for pilot testing with the student teachers.

Since the project is working within the total program and affecting all of the students, the question of institutionalization must be considered. One notion of institutionalization is the incorporation of the "pilot," "innovation," or component into the existing program. In this sense, the project has been institutionalized.

Additional consideration has to be given to impact and commitment. Three aspects of impact should be considered: impact on students, impact on curriculum, and impact on faculty.

Impact on Students. Although no hard data are available, project personnel have received reports from students, who generally feel very positive toward their experiences with the modules of the Affective Component. A questionnaire solicited student responses to open-ended questions on how the affective modules have affected them personally, their feelings about themselves as prospective teachers, their teaching styles, and their interactions with public school students. Responses were received from 40 Phase I students and 57 Phase II students. These responses were sorted into four categories according to the degree of integration of the affective objectives: negative--the response reflected a negative reaction to the Affective Component; neutral--minimal or mixed reaction; positive--a positive reaction, but no evidence of its being integrated; and integrated--an integration of affective outcomes into the behavior of the student.

Over 75 percent of the responses reflected positive or integrated reactions; furthermore, while only 20 percent of the Phase I student responses indicated integration, that figure increased to 37 percent for Phase II students.

According to faculty reports of student behavior, students interact more with each other and with faculty members after participation in the learning activities of the affective modules. Also, when they work in the schools they have a greater level of interaction with their pupils and are more aware of their pupils' affective aspects.

Impact on Curriculum. The guides prepared for the two Generic Teaching Competencies courses give evidence of the project's impact on the curriculum. The learning objectives and modules of the Affective Component are included in the guides along with the other components

of the generic area. In a modularized competency-based program, the competencies, learning objectives, and modules comprise the curriculum.

Impact on Faculty. The impact of project activities on faculty members is more difficult to assess. Initial faculty reaction was somewhat hesitant if not resistant. Efforts to deal with this have been described. Recent reactions have been much more receptive and positive. Many faculty members have indicated the need for and desirability of the Affective Component.

In an attempt to assess faculty reaction more formally, questionnaires were sent to 20 faculty members involved in the Generic Teaching sequence. Of these, 16 were returned. The results indicated that all respondents felt their interactions with students and their teaching styles were positively affected by the project's activities. All respondents supported the continuation of the Affective Component, and two-thirds of them supported continuation at an increased level.

Commitment is a vital factor in the institutionalization process. The developmental activities of the project will be finished, but continued institutionalization will require personnel to facilitate the modules. At the request of the director of the teacher preparation program, the Counselor Education Department submitted a proposal containing several alternative plans, including instructional responsibilities, for the continuation of the Affective Component. Although the specific plan has to be worked out, there seems to be ample evidence of commitment by the department and by the teacher education program to continue the institutionalization of the instructional modules developed by the project.

Although largely product oriented, the efforts of the project have been an exercise in institutional change, albeit on a small scale. Problems were encountered and adjustments made. The process is not complete, but early indications are that the project's activities have had an impact on the existing program. Faculty members and trainers are more attuned to affective aspects of themselves and their students, and are incorporating this awareness into their teaching. More important, there is evidence that these changes will be maintained and nurtured.

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USOE DRUG ABUSE PREVENTION DEMONSTRATION PROJECT
University of Northern Iowa

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Experimental programs in teacher education are as plentiful as institutions preparing teachers. They are generally alternatives to a program that has not been well-received by students and is regarded as indefensible by some segments of the faculty. These experimental programs are generally short-lived for many reasons, not the least of which is the lack of total institutional support to undertake and maintain them.

The University of Northern Iowa's drug abuse prevention project has been founded on educational principles similar to those undergirding mainstream programs in special education. We have devoted our attention to developing alternatives within the mainstream of our basic program rather than instituting alternative programs which borrow elements from the basic program. Students and faculty share a common professional educational content and experience. The common professional core is intended to enliven and unify studies in the academic major and in general education. The program draws on the total resources of the University to enrich and sustain it. Our project has been committed to a humanistic preservice teacher preparation program which makes a positive difference in the lives of students and faculty who share the Common Professional Sequence at the University of Northern Iowa.

HUMANISTIC EDUCATION

The University of Northern Iowa's commitment to teacher education is based on the conviction that schools and teachers can make a positive difference in the lives of children and youth. Some critics of education consider schools to be impersonal and joyless places. Certainly there are instances in which teachers, children, and youth have not learned to work harmoniously and productively together. Some would blame society for this condition; others attribute the problem almost solely to the schools. We take the view that schools can mirror the good in our society; they can be as humane as we would have them be. We must begin with the preservice preparation of teachers to rebuild the substance and structure of education.

The ideals and ideas advanced by humanistic psychology provide a framework for reshaping and revitalizing educational programs and practice. Advocates of this approach to personality growth and school learning offer educators hope and help. Gordon W. Allport (1961) and Abraham H. Maslow (1954) are among the personality theorists who have adapted an existentialist philosophy of man to educational enterprises: Allport postulates the functional autonomy of man, and Maslow declares that it is growth motivation that distinguishes man from other forms of life. Their formulations have been introduced into the preparation of teachers by Arthur Combs (1965) and applied to classroom learning by

Carl Rogers (1969). These authors and theoreticians have offered a fresh view of what schools can be when teachers are persons first, and then facilitators of an educational process.

We believe the high incidence of dysfunctional behavior among children and youth, with drug-taking but one potent example, can be attributed partially to a lack of attention to humanistic considerations in the preparation of teachers. Problems of alienated youth can be traced to alienated adults who are themselves products of programs that were neither sensitive nor responsive to their needs. We believe that this cycle of disregard and disrespect for human needs can be broken by teacher educators who place human needs before institutional program needs.

At the University of Northern Iowa, all the faculty members responsible for the Common Professional Sequence, the target program for this project, are in the same department. These faculty members represent a number of applied disciplines, including developmental and learning psychology, research, measurement and statistics, and the history, sociology, and philosophy of education. They share a common commitment to high quality preservice teacher education and to the ultimate goals of the program. They also share similar convictions about ways to combine department resources and student needs for the benefit of children and youths who work with the graduates. Our demonstration project has capitalized on the affinity of these faculty members for humanistic education principles and practices. We have adopted the following principles of preservice teacher preparation:

1. Preparing to teach is largely a matter of discovering the personal meaning of teaching. Becoming a teacher is learning who one is and what one would like to become. An effective teacher feels and behaves comfortably in the role of a teacher.
2. Preparing to work with others involves a growing sensitivity to and a greater awareness of the needs, motives, and aspirations of others. One must have experience and practice in order to gain the self-satisfaction and self-confidence necessary to help others maximize their talents, as well as their ability to cope with problems.
3. The way an individual interprets a problem is unique. There are no common problems with common solutions. Methods to solve problems must be a genuine expression of the person. Teacher education is not inculcation of a method guaranteed to work, but the gradual realization of a particular teacher's potential for using the entire self as an instrument of instruction.
4. Pure knowing, in the sense of cognitive learning that emphasizes abstract concepts and principles, is not sufficient to produce an effective teacher. A continuous interaction between actual doing, the affect associated with doing, and reflection on what has been done is a necessary process in learning to teach. Teaching

is an art, rather than a science, in that the aim is integrated practice rather than pure "knowing."

5. Guided practice in learning to relate positively to children and youth is not sufficient to ensure an effective teacher. Learning to teach involves the interlacing of practice and theory. Teachers must have both a functional knowledge of educational theory and a knowledge of themselves and their emotions. An effective teacher is intuitive and empathetic, has an understanding of the educational process, and has an awareness of the impact which the total milieu of child and youth has upon their desire and ability to learn.

It is our belief, based on our experience and the reading of professional literature, that the most effective preservice teacher education program is one which enables prospective teachers to realize their full potential as individuals and as teachers. Such a program will produce teachers with self-confidence and a knowledge of the principles of educational practice drawn from the disciplines of psychology, sociology, and philosophy. These teachers will become effective, positive influences in schools, and will find it more rewarding to facilitate and guide the learning process than merely to enforce rules and controls. The major goal of the project has been to rebuild the preservice education program and provide a supportive educational environment responsive to human needs, while fulfilling institutional program requirements.

COMMITMENT TO TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education has been the hallmark of the University of Northern Iowa for a hundred years. For more than a half century as Iowa State Teachers College, and now as a medium scope institution organized into four colleges serving 9,800 students--half of whom receive degrees in teacher education--the University has been the primary teacher education institution in Iowa.

The College of Education is housed in a multimillion dollar education complex which features a variety of classroom configurations and technological support systems. The flexibility of classroom space is enhanced by a closed circuit color television system used to transmit all forms of media, and equipped to transmit programs from the Price Laboratory School and the four clinics in the building. Research and demonstration capabilities provided by the Laboratory School and the educational clinics are augmented by the materials housed in the Curriculum Laboratory and the Learning Resource Center.

We have sharply curtailed the student teaching program in the Laboratory School and have moved into the community and the state. The student teaching program operates out of 13 centers, located throughout the state. Each center has one or more full-time resident coordinators who are members of the University faculty; they live in the communities where most of the students are placed. The coordinators select from the school system teachers who supervise the student teachers, offer seminars for the 15-20 students with whom they work during each nine-week

period, help these students locate housing in the community, and assist them to become participants in the life of the community. These resident coordinators also work with teacher association representatives and school administrators to identify inservice education needs, help the Dean of Extension and Continuing Education arrange for programs to meet these needs, and provide a credit course on the supervision of student teachers.

COMMON PROFESSIONAL SEQUENCE

The demonstration project later funded by the U.S. Office of Education initially originated as a result of the reorganization of the Department of Education and the formation of the Department of Educational Psychology and Foundations, intended to promote stronger ties and commitments among faculty members responsible for the same programs. The 28 faculty members of this new department were given sole responsibility for the Common Professional Sequence required for all teacher education candidates, and they began a revision of the program.

Since this program served the entire University, participation was solicited from the other three colleges offering teaching majors. Two all-university task forces were organized to study proposed alternatives for the standard teacher preparation program. These studies resulted in two experimental programs, entitled PERFORM and PROBE, which began in the spring semester of 1971. Each program enrolled approximately 100 students for the three-semester experimental programs. The remaining 300 students served by the department continued to enroll in the standard 14-hour program. Students who volunteered to participate in these experimental programs agreed to enroll for a minimum of five semester hours in each of three consecutive semesters.

PERFORM was a highly structured, performance based, criterion referenced program of four- and eight-week modular (one credit) courses. The program offered content and skill oriented modules, plus several field-based projects. Students selected a total of 15 modules from three core areas.

In the PROBE program, students participated in a field experience consisting of two half-days each week in a Cedar Falls or Waterloo school. Four faculty members visited students at field sites, and each met with 25 students once each week for a two-hour seminar. Seminars focused on the feelings, insights, and concerns associated with the field experience. Faculty members helped students to identify areas in which assistance was needed, and referred them to faculty and material resources. When students found common concerns, the seminars were organized around a single topic or set of skills. Self-forming seminars were led by student-selected faculty members. This format was used for the entire three-semester program.

During these experimental programs, the department head met periodically with the faculty. These sessions, augmented by test data and student evaluations, resulted in a curriculum proposal for a program to replace the standard teacher education program. The curriculum proposal for the Common Professional Sequence, based on the structure and approaches developed in the PROBE program and augmented by some of the features of the PERFORM program, was adopted in spring 1974.

The newly adopted Common Professional Sequence consists of three consecutive semesters, designated as Phases I, II, and III. Phase I, the first-semester, five-credit enrollment, is designed to immerse students in the affective meanings of teaching, while helping them acquire cognitive foundations for understanding the process of learning. Twice each week students participate in a two-credit Values Seminar structured to help them become aware of a teacher's impact on the lives of students and to encourage and sustain growth. Dynamics of Human Development, a two-credit course, provides an awareness of the influences affecting individual behavior, both the inner forces which shape personality and the impact of culture upon behavior.

These two courses are complemented by Interpersonal Interaction Patterns, a one-credit field experience in one of the area public or parochial schools. Here prospective teachers can see theory in action by actually observing developmental differences in children and the various methods classroom teachers may employ to deal effectively with these differences and, if necessary, bring about behavioral change.

Students are encouraged to maintain consecutive enrollments in the professional sequence by enrolling in Phase II immediately following Phase I. Nature and Conditions of Learning, a three-credit course, looks at learning theories and teaching models. Since evaluation is an integral part of the learning process, Classroom Evaluation Instruments, a two-credit course, is also included in Phase II of the sequence. The third component, Teacher as a Change Agent, a one-credit field experience at Price Laboratory School, provides a setting where the concepts and skills acquired in this phase can be brought to life and invested with new meaning through observation and participation. The University faculty works closely with the Laboratory School faculty to enable students to see the interchange between formal and experiential learning.

Phase III, a four-credit program, consists of two nine-week courses. Educational Purposes and Practices (two credits) and the Community and the Curriculum (two credits). Some students take Phase III after student teaching. We do not discourage their exercising this option because faculty members who teach those courses prefer students with additional experience; they believe those who have completed student teaching better understand and appreciate the philosophical, sociological, and historical perspectives of the two courses.

The proposal offering the rationale for this new program also included recommendations for its gradual implementation over a period of four semesters. The department made provisions for 120 students (approximately a fourth of the total students who had already begun or had planned to take the standard program) to enter the new program each semester. Gradual adoption of the program also gave faculty members a year to prepare for participation.

USOE DEMONSTRATION PROJECT

Our application for funding as a USOE demonstration project coincided with plans to introduce the new Common Professional Sequence. The curriculum proposal, based on PROBE and PERFORM, was adopted by the University despite the lack of carefully delineated objectives and

content for the two field experiences and six courses. The University faculty was satisfied that the mechanisms for giving shape and substance to the program had been provided in the experimental programs.

With considerable latitude in the development of each course, it was feasible to identify, distribute, and integrate objectives of a drug prevention program into the three-semester professional sequence. We sought USOE funds to provide released time for faculty working on course goals and to secure outside consultants to provide inservice education to preserve the perceptual psychology and humanistic education features of PROBE.

After the project was funded by USOE in June 1974, several faculty members who would be teaching in the new professional sequence that fall became members of a cadre organized to study the origins and manifestations of the drug problems and other dysfunctional behaviors among school-aged children and youth. This cadre also identified preventive measures which could be instituted by school personnel and ways we could prepare teachers to adopt these measures. The preventive measures were translated into objectives and then stated as cognitive and affective teacher capabilities. A booklet containing these program objectives was distributed and discussed at the first departmental faculty meeting of the school year, and the faculty was encouraged to incorporate the objectives into the program development activities of instructional teams. A day-long fall retreat was devoted to drug-related issues and alternative ways of addressing these problems in the preparation of teachers. Faculty teams continued the efforts initiated in the retreat and the activities that preceded it. The impetus for this approach came from the PROBE program.

Before the new program was submitted for university review, each member of the Department of Educational Psychology and Foundations had an opportunity to state preferences for course assignments when the new professional sequence was implemented; instructional assignments were made to the satisfaction of all. The persons responsible for the planning, development, and evaluation activities of a single course, exclusive of the two field experiences, were designated as the "vertical" team for that course. They were to describe and interpret the goals and content of the course to other members of the faculty and were to be available for consultation with all departments offering a teaching major.

In addition to being on a vertical (course) team, each faculty member was also on a horizontal (program) team. Each horizontal team included five members: one representing each of the four courses in the Phase I and II programs, and one representing the two social foundations courses in Phase III. Horizontal team members were responsible for identifying and explaining to members of the vertical team the goals and content of the course. Vertical teams could then deal with problems of course duplication and consider suggestions for ways to build content and experience connections between courses.

Since implementation of this project, faculty members have worked almost exclusively as vertical teams. The time involved in setting objectives, selecting content, and preparing common materials has been extensive. Joint meetings of the vertical teams have produced ways of dealing with the problem of course overlays and the integration of

course content. The vertical teams have worked to integrate objectives of course pairings. The Values and Development teams, Development and Learning teams, and Learning and Evaluation teams have found it particularly useful to discuss and plan ways to consolidate content and performance objectives.

The faculty activities have sponsored a number of other cooperative endeavors. The USOE contract has provided consultation resources, field investigations, trips to other campuses, and--most important--assistance in changing institutional structures and policies to accommodate these activities. The project staff has been encouraged by the potential for developing a significant linkage between the professional sequence learning courses and the methods courses taught by professors in the student's major department.

During the fall 1976 semester, a faculty member from the Department of English and one from the Department of Educational Psychology and Foundations team-taught a combined section of two courses, The Teaching of English and Nature and Conditions of Learning. Microteaching was used as the primary medium for introducing students to the nature and processes of instructional decision making, as a way of helping them review the bases for their decisions, and as a mechanism for considering alternative courses of action. The decisions which preceded, accompanied, and followed each of three videotaped lessons, filmed with pupils at Price Laboratory School, became focal points for reading assignments and class projects. Critique sessions after each lesson gave individual students an opportunity to observe and reflect upon their own unique abilities, put troublesome areas in proper perspective, and identify the next step in their professional development plan. Two-hour class sessions three times a week were used to examine the teaching/learning assumptions underlying selected instructional approaches, to discuss the benefits and shortcomings of each approach, and to identify teacher and pupil attitudes and skills that increase the effective use of each approach. Throughout the course, students were advised of both the support and the obstacles they would encounter on the job. The course proved so successful that a number of other secondary methods teachers are considering a similar cooperatively-developed and team-taught course.

Cooperation and collaboration introduced trust and respect for those involved in team efforts. This has been true of our involvement with the Iowa State Education Association and with the local teachers who have cooperated with us in our field experience program. An example of this cooperation was the rare use of one faculty line item in the University department's budget to hire ten public school teachers to serve on adjunct appointments and to teach a regular course in the professional sequence. The Department of Educational Psychology and Foundations arranged for the Values Clarification evening sections to be taught by public school teachers; this has been well received by University students and faculty members. While the potential for using public school teachers in such programs remains virtually untapped, this represents a significant departure worthy of consideration by other institutions.

Similar promising developments have been made in a number of other endeavors that extend into the community. We refer to these as project

outreach activities. As part of their ten semester-hour methods and materials "block," all students in elementary education now participate in a drug substance prevention module designed by a faculty member who was originally a member of the project cadre. During their student teaching semester, some secondary education students have participated in a seminar jointly organized and taught by a student teaching coordinator and the director of the local, community-funded, drug counseling center.

PROJECT EVALUATION

Emphasis in the evaluation of the project has been decision oriented. Evaluation activities have been concerned with collecting and evaluating information in order to judge among competing decision alternatives. We have relied heavily on the empirical studies of other institutions, pilot projects, consultants, resource and budget analysis, team and committee meetings, interviews, questionnaires, checklists, rating scales, and self-report inventories. We have adopted the basic premises of Stufflebeam's approach to evaluation, generally referred to as the CIPP (Context, Input, Process, Product) model (1971).

Professional Association Monitoring

During the experimental programs PROBE and PERFORM which preceded the USOE grant, a group of teachers, school board members, and school administrators appointed by the Iowa State Education Association (ISEA) were working with the department to formulate guidelines and suggest activities to improve the field experience program. Their ideas became an integral part of the two one-credit field experiences included in the new program. Because of the mutual benefits of this consultative activity, ISEA was invited to organize a monitoring committee to review and evaluate activities and outcomes of the new professional sequence. Seven classroom teachers, two members of the curriculum and certification division of the State Department of Public Instruction, a school administrator, a school board member, the Instruction and Professional Development Specialist for the ISEA, and the head of the Department of Educational Psychology and Foundations were appointed to this committee.

The ISEA Monitoring Committee tracked a group of 120 students through Phases I and II of the program. Committee members attended Vertical Team meetings and visited classes; they interviewed students, cooperating teachers, and principals in the public schools; they studied student responses to questionnaires and the evaluation instruments.

Each committee followed three students through two field experiences and four courses. The Monitoring Committee provided an oral and written report to the Department of Educational Psychology and Foundations. The logs kept by students and interview data collected by the committee raised several questions concerning administration of the new program: the optimal time for students to enter the program, the role of the Values Seminar as a self-selection device, and measures which might reduce scheduling conflicts for participating students. Some communication problem areas also became evident: orientation of students and cooperating teachers to the purposes and expectations of the

field experience; coordination of content in the Values Seminar instructed by public school teachers and University faculty; and keeping the University faculty informed about the purposes and outcomes of student participation.

The Monitoring Committee's observations became the basis for changing several practices and altering a few project emphases. University faculty members working in Phase I of the program developed a more explicit statement of objectives for the field experience program and made the field work a more integral part of their courses. They also wrote to principals and teachers in school field experience sites, to indicate their willingness to visit the schools, share their expectations, and seek solutions to problems encountered by school personnel. This offer was well received, and each member of the faculty made several visits to the schools for which they had agreed to be the contact person. Many written exchanges and telephone conversations occurred after these direct contacts. Students responded favorably to the visits of their University professors to the schools.

The school visits revealed the desire of cooperating teachers to know more about the total teacher education program. They were interested in establishing connections between their work with students and the total teacher preparation process. The project staff began work on a multiscreen media presentation to explain the program to those teachers, and it became apparent in the production stages that the presentation could also be shown to students entering the program.

Program Improvement

The Monitoring Committee members also offered observations and suggestions based on their work with the faculty. They felt the greatest need for improvement was in curriculum design and program organization. Attention was directed to the sequencing and articulation of objectives and content through all three phases of the program. The horizontal and vertical teams were seen as effective instruments for curriculum development and for avoiding content duplication, and they urged further work to create more functional faculty teams. They preferred the early entry feature of the program, but thought the induction process could be improved by having the faculty work more closely with school personnel. The committee felt the continuity of the student's experience was limited by the once a week assignment; however, this problem was partially offset by the Values Seminar and the opportunity to relate field experience to recurring problems in teaching.

We have continued to improve the arrangements for field experience and have endeavored to utilize the horizontal teams more for program articulation. The interdisciplinary character of the horizontal teams has met with some resistance from faculty members who prefer to work within the disciplines represented in the vertical teams. Devoting more attention to team building activities may decrease this resistance. The humanistic thrust of this project has attempted to build bridges which enable faculty members to cross over the interdisciplinary barriers and explore the possibilities of developing the full potentials of our educational resources.

We have overcome some of the obstacles in the use of vertical teams, which have been an effective instrument for course development.

The collective resources and imagination of these teams have sharpened course objectives and introduced innovative, stimulating approaches in teaching. They have also assisted in designing evaluation instruments, which include student evaluations of the program.

Student Perceptions of Relevance

This humanistic preservice teacher education program devotes considerable attention to student perceptions of the relevance of the program, since we believe much of the alienation and disaffection in schools is due to the lack of relevancy and meaning in the educational process. The project students were aware of the importance of their perceptions, and incorporated this humanistic approach as a part of their own teaching. Accordingly, we developed instruments to determine the extent to which students believed the goals of the program were important to their success as classroom teachers.

The goals of each of the five courses of the Common Professional Sequence were converted into a total of 103 questions. Each question was designed to unite several essential course goals. The questions focused on a body of content and skills teachers draw upon to make educational decisions and use to perform common instructional functions. The questions were written in nontechnical vocabulary and were organized around the four or five major themes included in each course. Each of the five instruments included from 20 to 30 questions.

Each faculty member teaching professional sequence courses administered the instrument designed for that course. The instruments were administered twice, during the first and last class sessions of the spring term. First, students indicated the significance, along a five-point scale from "very important" to "unimportant," they as prospective teachers attached to each question. Responses indicated the relationship between their ability to answer the question and their ultimate success as a teacher. Second, they recorded their self-perceived competency regarding the knowledge, understandings, and skills covered by the question. Students used a grading scale of A, B, C, D, F to estimate their ability to prepare an oral or written response to the question.

We believed that students in each course would view the questions as "very important" or "important" to their success as classroom teachers; this assumption was based on the fact that the program goals which were the basis for the questionnaire had been prepared over a period of three years with substantial student input. We also believed that students would assign greater significance to each of the questions after having completed the course than they did the first day of the course.

Students initially attached considerable importance to being able to answer the questions, and there was little change in the ratings from the beginning to the end of the course. The percentage of students who marked "very important" and "important" remained stable in all five courses: the combined ratings for these two response positions yielded median values between 77 and 87 percent at the beginning of the semester and between 81 and 90 percent at the end of the term for the five courses.

Stability of student responses was also revealed in the distribution of percentages for the total group of 103 questions. The inter-quartile range increased by only a single point at each end of the distribution,

from a Q1 of 76 to 77 and a Q3 of 89 to 90. The range was more constricted in the post-course survey, decreasing 20 points, with a lower limit of 66 percent and an upper limit of 98 percent.

The data indicated that students considered the questions being addressed in the professional sequence classes relevant to their needs. We reasoned that, if students regarded themselves as competent to answer these questions, this positive assessment would serve as convincing evidence that our program was perceived as relevant.

Assessment of student-perceived attainments of the program goals was made through student estimates of the letter grade they would assign their response to each of the questions. Students were asked to judge the extent to which they could actually answer those questions they had already endorsed as being important to their success as classroom teachers. No actual test to verify the accuracy of their perceptions was conducted as part of this project.

A separate descriptive statistical summary was prepared for each question and for the cluster of questions prepared for each course. In each case, the percent of students who assigned themselves an A or B grade for a given question was calculated, and a frequency distribution of these percentages for each of the five courses was then prepared. The calculations were used to order the data.

It became apparent from inspection of these data that there was little difference between courses for the average (median) percent of students who believed they could prepare an A or B response to the course questions. When students began the semester, the combined A and B median percentages for the five courses ranged from 26 percent to 35 percent. The distribution of medians for the five courses, based entirely on student estimates of their ability to prepare an A or B response at the end of the semester, ranged from a low of 64 percent to a high of 74 percent. Based on the compilation of percentages for all 103 questions, the distribution of percentages before taking the course was between 12 and 58 percent, and at the end of the course was between 39 and 95 percent. The median percentage of self-proclaimed A and B grades for the 103 questions was 30 percent before instruction, 70 percent after instruction. The values for Q1 and Q3 increased from 25 to 60 percent and 39 to 78 percent, respectively. The proportion of students marking response positions corresponding to a grade of A or B increased so markedly that the median doubled in three courses and tripled in two others.

We believe this is a clear indication that the students perceive themselves as more competent after participation in the program--a program they have indicated is relevant to their needs as prospective teachers. It is fair to conclude that they feel capable of meeting the demands of teaching.

Student Perceptions of Affective Learning

In this humanistic approach to teacher preparation, we were concerned about students' perceptions of program relevance and their perceived competence to apply their studies to the challenges of classroom teaching. However, we felt that the means to attain these essentially cognitive and skill outcomes should also be evaluated. There were

significant affective considerations and goals, commonly associated with programs with a humanistic emphasis, that were not addressed by the content-based instruments previously cited. Since we were interested in ascertaining the extent to which students felt they attained selected affective objectives which were the basis for our total program, an instrument was prepared to survey student perceptions of these affective goals and personal considerations.

The second instrument included 20 items intended to elicit student responses to affective conditions and affective outcomes believed to be part of the total program. It should be noted parenthetically that a distinction was made between affective conditions (I experienced) and affective outcomes (I am). This instrument was designed to compare the extent to which such learnings actually occurred. No effort was made to develop affective condition and affective outcome pairings; nevertheless, we believe there is sufficient face validity for the distinction between these two item pools and that a case for means-end relationships between the two item pools could be made. We have not employed statistical procedures to demonstrate the exclusiveness of each item pool.

We were looking for a generally discernible relationship between conditions and outcomes. We hypothesized that the magnitude of the outcomes reported should not greatly exceed the conditions purported to support them; it would be difficult to reconcile student reports that the course had enabled them to attain the aggregate of affective goals with a concurrent report that the conditions which would seemingly support such outcomes were only nominally present.

Although students' opinions regarding cognitive objectives had already been surveyed, ten items on this instrument addressed more global cognitive program goals. The earlier instruments were based on rather explicit and more confining course content and skill objectives; this instrument was designed to secure measures for analyzing student perceptions of the relative effectiveness of each course with respect to a common set of goals. In addition, we wanted to compare student appraisals within these two domains and believed these comparisons would be more valid if both forms of objectives were framed in similar language and at similar levels of inclusiveness.

The same procedure was used for compiling and comparing student responses on this instrument: students were asked to report, "Yes" or "No," whether provisions were made for their attaining and expressing the capabilities or qualities described in a statement. For each of the five courses, the percent of students who responded "Yes" or "No" to each of the 30 items was calculated. Again the medians, Q1 and Q3 statistics, were established for each course. Comparison of median values among the five courses reveals a spread of ten percentage points on the cognitive items, from 80 percent to 90 percent. The median values for the affective condition items were generally eight to eleven points lower than the corresponding cognitive median values for each course. The spread between the lowest (67 percent) and highest (86 percent) median figures is almost twice that obtained on the cognitive items. In all but one of the five courses, the median values for the affective outcomes items are slightly--one to nine points--higher than those obtained on the affective condition items. This would seem to suggest reasonable response consistency among students, both within a

given course and between the two forms of interdependent affective item types. Similar response relationships were noted in the combined distribution of percentage values for all five courses. The respective median percentage values of 87, 83, and 75 were obtained for the cognitive, affective outcome, and affective condition items.

Perceived and Actual Competencies

Six University-employed student teaching coordinators carried out a final check on the impact of the program on students. These six individuals helped the project staff to convert the 103 questions prepared for the five professional sequence courses into 59 behavioral statements. Generally, the behavioral statements were gleaned from combinations of questions within a single course or drawn from the composite of several questions from different courses. The final version of the instruments included behaviors which could logically be attributed to students who had taken the Common Professional Sequence and which were most likely to occur within the student teaching situation. The 59 statements were organized into seven categories, each of which represented a primary functional responsibility of the student teacher.

The coordinators applied the criterion statement to five or six student teachers who had taken the entire revised professional sequence. Evaluations on the 59 items were reported on a five-point scale. The critique form was completed in the presence of the students, who were encouraged to offer their appraisals so that the final judgment on each item was a collective one.

For purposes of analysis, the two response positions at the upper end of the scale (good and excellent) were regarded as being equivalent to grades A and B. Thus, the percent of A and B evaluations reported for each of the seven categories can be compared with the percent of A and B evaluations students assigned themselves at the conclusion of each course. It was not possible to compare a student's prior perceptions of competence with actual performance because the student teachers who participated in the study had not participated in the collection of data previously reported. Therefore, comparisons were confined to median and quartile rankings for the total professional sequence and each of the seven categories on the critique form. The comparisons enabled us to check student estimates of their competence against competence appraisals that included the benefit of actual experience. While the groups did not work with precisely the same set of items, we considered the items to fall within the same domain.

All check marks placed in the non-applicable category on the critique form (a total of ten percent of the 1,593 judgments recorded) were excluded from analysis. Thus, only the marks recorded along a five-point scale were used when converting the total of the top two positions on the scale to a percent of the total responses on each of the seven scales. These calculations, across a total of 32 critique forms, resulted in median percent values of 66, 66, 76, 84, 76, 70, and 80 for the seven categories. The median post-course grade estimates for the five courses were 68, 74, 70, 70, and 64 percent. The median estimates of A and B grades that students assigned themselves as they completed the professional sequence courses were quite similar to the actual achievement of students during the student teaching period.

UNFINISHED BUSINESS

We originally intended that the third year of the project be devoted to extending the program to other components in the undergraduate teacher education program. While accomplishments in this area were modest, we undertook many activities which were not originally conceived as parts of the project. During the second year of funding, we found that we had underestimated the amount of time necessary to achieve consensus on the primary goals for each course and to establish an interface among courses in the Common Professional Sequence. We therefore changed the emphases of several aspects of the project: we devoted much more time to conducting field experiences, working with the teaching profession, and developing evaluation tools to augment instructional decisions and the revision of the total program. We also began to implement plans, originally scheduled for the fourth and fifth years of the project, to assist teachers in the field to become more receptive to and supportive of graduates of the new program.

In the third year of funding, emphasis was on the need for inservice teacher education programs to assist in creating supportive environments for beginning teachers. We helped the experienced teachers to assume an advocacy and constructive leadership role so that they serve as resources to new teachers. We have begun to initiate an inservice project which incorporates these goals.

During the past year, we trained six staff development teams to prepare and conduct inservice programs based on the objectives, content, and processes of humanistic education. Each team is composed of a public school teacher, a college teacher, and a consultant from an educational or community agency. These individuals were selected by specific criteria, which focused on an affinity for and demonstration of humanistic education principles. As teams they have now offered several one- and two-credit workshops for teachers.

We have requested a grant to continue selected features of this project in addition to other features which our experiences have suggested will further enhance the quality of this inservice venture. It is our way of revitalizing and humanizing both preservice and inservice education. We feel this program will evolve toward a career education model for the teaching profession and will result in teachers who will provide a positive influence in the schools.

CONCLUSION

This project was based on the conviction that schools and teachers can make a positive difference in the lives of children and youth, and that sensitive, responsive teachers can prevent or effectively intervene in dysfunctional behaviors among children and youth. Our project is devoted to a preservice training program which enables prospective teachers to become aware of their own needs and motives. This self-awareness forms the core of our program and gradually expands to include awareness of and sensitivity to the needs of learners and to the learning process.

The three-phase program begins with a strong emphasis in Phase I on developing the prospective teacher's full potential as an individual.

We believe students must recognize their own unique sources of strength and caring. The emphasis on values and human relationships characteristic of Phase I provides students with a positive experience which can be incorporated into their professional and private lives. The field experience and the Values Seminar, when augmented by a study of the factors that shape the lives of children and youth, set the stage for personal growth and professional development throughout the program.

But prospective teachers must receive more than a body of content and the skills to deliver it. We believe that the process by which they learn the content and acquired delivery skills must come from professors who model both program content and humanistic qualities. Phase I enables the students to engage in personal and professional relationships which encourage and sustain growth. The practical skills, the evaluation tools, and the philosophical, sociological, and historical perspectives which comprise Phases II and III of the program are more effective and meaningful because of the self-knowledge students gain in Phase I.

Shifts in the purposes of education are being translated into new forms of school organization and are introducing new ways for educators to work together. Open classrooms, informal schooling, resource centers, and team teaching have created new opportunities for teachers. Prospective teachers at the University of Northern Iowa are being prepared to look beyond the framework of old ideas and ideals and commit themselves to meaningful roles by responding to needs in such areas as race relations, drug abuse, ecology, sex stereotyping, and other special issues.

Ours has been a concerted effort to practice what we espouse. Cooperation, collaboration, and conciliation are qualities necessary to meaningful human relationships. We feel that teacher education prospers when human relationships are given prominent attention by those who educate and those being educated.

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THE DRUG EDUCATION PROGRAM
University of California at Santa Cruz

Arthur Pearl

"The intellectual life lies not in the possession of truth but in the quest for new uncertainties."--Richard Hofstadter, in Anti-Intellectualism in American Life

At the University of California at Santa Cruz, the Drug Education program, a component of the Committee on Education and the teacher credentialing program, had as its primary purpose the introduction of an intellectual approach in an area where anti-intellectualism has long held sway--the understanding and treatment of the alienated student. At a time when there is a resurgence of anti-intellectuality, when teachers are preoccupied with specification of performance-based objectives and the generation of answers for which there are no questions, we at UCSC felt it imperative to adopt a theoretical perspective and to establish a Drug Education program that would work within specified boundaries.

The program had many components: it was an educational program that explicated a theory; teams of students worked in public schools; university students developed specific projects with elementary and secondary students; the non-school community was actively involved; emphasis was placed on cultural pluralism in both content and personal involvement. Each of these aspects was both challenging and frustrating.

DRUG ABUSE AND ALIENATION

In its inception, the UCSC program was based on the assumption that drug abuse is a manifestation of two forms of alienation: (a) the estrangement of the individual from the institution--in this case, the school; and (b) the estrangement of the school as an institution from other functioning political, economic, and cultural systems. We theorized that these alienating factors must be addressed if drug abuse is to be reduced. From the user's view, drug use is neither pathological nor abhorrent; the user is neither sick nor stupid. To the contrary, drug use is seen as logical and gratifying within the social context of the user. Thus an effective program must alter context, must change the relationship of the individual to the society by generating opportunities for people to be a part of the system. From this perspective, persuading or coercing students merely to refrain from using drugs is futile and brutal; rather, an effective program must substitute for drug usage--or other self or socially destructive behaviors--socially constructive and personally gratifying activities that do not require the use of drugs.

A Supporting Theory of Alienation

The basic theme of the theory of alienation that guided the UCSC program is that persons behave in ways that fulfill important psychological

needs. All behavior can be understood as the result of a "phenomenological cost-benefit" analysis. The actor weighs the pluses and minuses of any decision and acts accordingly. The process stems from the assumption that human decision making in all significant arenas of life is rational and conscious. Thus, students choose to become involved in drugs because the benefits for them outweigh the costs for them; and they do not become the nice, conforming citizens their parents and teachers would wish them to be because the costs of those behaviors outweigh the benefits. To understand such calculations, one must specify the particular gratifications that people strive to obtain in their personal behavior.

The UCSC program identified eight gratifications that underlie all human endeavor: security, comfort, meaning, belonging, usefulness, competence, hope, and excitement. Unless students obtain a measure of these gratifications through socially desired behavior, they will avoid such behavior; conversely, the more students obtain these gratifications from drug use or other proscribed behaviors, the more difficult it is to discourage their use. To reduce the alienation of the individual, it is essential that projects and activities be initiated to provide gratifications where there is now only frustration.

Voluminous data testify that the schools alienate large numbers of students. It is undeniable that many students feel socially insecure, are miserable and lonely, find the entire schooling process unintelligible, feel useless, have been branded as incompetent, see no hope for the future; and--finally--are bored. To cite Schopenhauer, the school is where people struggle to avoid the dual threats to human enjoyment--pain and boredom. Of late, educators hesitate to voice concern about this situation because they are unable to improve it.

What is not always appreciated is that the alienation process leads not only to the withdrawal of psychic energy from schools, it leads to the investment of psychic energy in other activities. Since our society offers few opportunities for the investment of energy within the system, the only options available for many young people are asocial and anti-social behavior. Drug use may offer other kinds of security; for example, poor youths who are deprived of a legal means of obtaining economic security may see drug trafficking as a way to rapid accumulation of wealth and also to "social security," participation in a "community," access to power, and protection that is not otherwise available to them. Schools can be miserable, painful, unfriendly places; drugs can be comforting, drugs can relieve pain. About the only change we have seen in student drug use in recent years has been a periodic shifting in their choice of drugs: students appear to be drifting back to alcohol and away from heroin for anesthetization.

Viktor Frankl argues that humans have a basic need to make sense out of their existence. It is increasingly clear that, if young people are searching for meaning in their lives, they aren't going to find it in the schools as presently organized. The schooling process has become increasingly unintelligible, with programs designed and controlled by persons outside the classroom; no one takes responsibility for demystification. Teachers sometimes appear as bewildered as students in almost every content area: the introduction of set theory to elementary mathematics confuses primary grade teachers; science in elementary school is a series of disconnected activities and games; teachers are unable to

explain the political/economic processes of the greater society. Drugs and drug use reduce one's existence to something small and self-contained, establish a set of rules, a culture, an economy, and even a political system that is understandable, if illusory. And, as Eugene O'Neill pointed out in The Ice Man Cometh, if people have nothing else, they will desperately hang on to their illusions.

The School as an Alien Institution

The alienation of the school from other institutions and arenas of American life also afflicts young people. The school does not prepare many of them for work; rather, it confuses and distorts the work world. Students have only a limited marketable skill; they do not know how the system works, nor what can be done to change it. When preparation for citizenship is considered, the school mystifies both the theory and practice of democracy; the student is taught to depreciate rights, and is not taught how to function in decision-making processes. In the transmission of culture, the school has a far less significant role to play than the mass media; it is television, with its concern for reaching the largest possible audience, that is extirpating pluralism in our society, while the schools initiate insignificant and superficial bilingual/multicultural programs that, in most instances, do as much harm as good. The failure to address in any meaningful way the primary economic, political, and cultural institutions in our society can lead to distortion of reality, disillusionment, and epidemics of substance abuse and violence. Yet school authorities are unwilling and, in most cases, unable to conceptualize a school which is totally integrated into society.

The UCSC Drug Education program attempted to address both forms of alienation. Students were urged, prodded, and importuned to analyze pupil behavior; to assess the gratification systems that existed; to generate projects that produced for pupils feelings of security, comfort, meaning, belonging, usefulness, competence, hope, and excitement; and to strengthen the bonds between school or work situations and political agencies, cultural events, and family members.

THE PROGRAM ORGANIZATION

The most critical components of the UCSC Drug Education program were: admission procedures, organization of teams of student teachers, participation of teams in specially designed seminars, team supervision by education staff, and development of an organized relationship with both the University and the community.

Admission to the Program

A committee consisting of UCSC students, Teacher Education staff and teachers, school administrators, and minority community leaders interviewed all applicants and selected students for the program. Approximately half of those selected were minority students--black, Chicano, or Asian. Criteria for selection were (a) the ability to articulate a theory of alienation and (b) a dedication to working with

alienated youth in a field experience. A desire to be a teacher was important, but not a prerequisite; about one-fourth of the students involved did not go on to get teaching credentials.

Organization into Teams

In the first year of the program, seven teams of four to six members were formed; three of the teams worked in high schools, five in junior high schools, and one in an elementary school. In the following year six teams were organized, to allow more adequate supervision and leadership. During the first year the UCSC students divided themselves by ethnicity: the Watsonville teams were almost exclusively Chicano, the Santa Cruz teams Anglo. Four teams were in Watsonville, in schools with a large concentration of Mexican-American (Chicano) students; the remainder were in Santa Cruz schools that had a small percentage of minority students.

Teams were formed in the first years by self-selection. There was concern, particularly among Anglo students, about the division into ethnic groups; however, the Chicano students argued the need for developing a sense of identity, especially in communities which had previously been denied such expression. In the third year, a review of this policy led to a reversal of strategy, and the six teams became integrated. The Chicano students' deep-seated distrust of Anglo-dominated institutions was not erased completely by either approach.

Each team designated a team leader from the UCSC faculty, and these team leaders were recruited to become the staff for the Drug Education program. To facilitate school-university relationships during the last two years, a teacher from the Watsonville/Santa Cruz area joined the Drug Education staff, supervised teams, and participated in the seminars. In the final year, half of the teams were supervised by Chicano staff and half by Anglo staff. Supervision was organized to promote integration: a Chicano staff supervised teams in Santa Cruz and an Anglo staff supervised in Watsonville.

Periodically during the first year, Chicano staff and team members held "caucuses" to evaluate programs from a Chicano perspective. There were no caucuses in the final year, because of a conscious effort to bridge differences in the group, and a change in the Chicano leadership.

Every person accepted for a team pledged one year of field service. Minimum requirements were that each member be in a target school for eight hours a week, and participate in the Drug Education seminars and team planning meetings. In addition, team members accepted into Student Teaching had to fulfill requirements for the teaching credential.

Organization of Team Projects

Each team organized, with school students, projects and activities that had clearly articulated goals and provided opportunities for alienated youth to engage in behaviors to make schooling a gratifying experience. For example, one project in Watsonville High School was a mural for the dining area. In Soquel High School in Santa Cruz, the project was to develop an alternative school, which has since been recognized as a part of the school system. In junior high schools, Spanish Clubs were organized. Elementary school projects emphasized cultural appreciation.

The project work was an effort to create a sense of cohesiveness within the team, and to bring alienated elementary and secondary students into cooperative arrangements with each other and with University students and faculty.

The Seminar

The weekly seminars were instrumental in providing analysis of day-to-day work: student projects were discussed, and implications for change were drawn. The seminars attempted to bring team activities into context, and to inform the entire group of individual team activities.

Various approaches to seminars were attempted. The seminar for the entire Drug Education student group was too large, prohibited meaningful exchanges, and became too much like a lecture. Small team seminars did allow for an emphasis on day-to-day problems, but not a broad analysis of them. A combination of large and small seminars therefore was attempted. Although the seminars were helpful, they did not accomplish all that was anticipated, and were probably the most frustrating component of the program. We had hypothesized that, in the seminars, students would learn to appreciate the importance of theory, but day-to-day crises prevailed to a large extent over long-range analysis.

Supervision of Teams

The assignment of a staff member to a particular team provided intensive ongoing supervision and the opportunity for continuous analysis and sustained growth. The use of school-based personnel on the teams provided reality testing for team activities. Team success with these projects gave new ideas and incentives to the classroom teacher. Regular, consistent supervision provided experienced leadership in periods of crisis.

The use of staff to supervise 4-6 member teams was a successful aspect of the Drug Education program, and undoubtedly will be incorporated into the Teacher Education program in the future.

Organization of Relationships Within and Outside the Community

A number of potential allies were identified from both the University and the community. These people--from the Psychology Department, from other bilingual/multicultural programs, and from youth and family service agencies--were brought together periodically for conferences. The exchanges were beneficial, and productive relationships were established. This supportive base, developed during the Drug Education program, is now a part of the Teacher Education program.

THEORY IN ACTION

A theory is only as good as its applicability. Kurt Lewin argued that nothing is more practical than a good theory. The five theoretical aspects of the UCSC Drug Education program were: intellectual presence, the organization of teams, the projects generated by the teams, community involvement, and cultural pluralism.

Intellectual Presence

The UCSC program identified three different modes of teacher behavior. One is a technical presence, in which the teacher applies programs developed by others, and accepts little (if any) responsibility for developing the curriculum or evaluating the outcome. Both curriculum and evaluation are ritualistically programmed. Many of the highly acclaimed individualized programs demand that teaching be limited to a technical presence. Such programs are defined as teacher proof, which means that teachers have no involvement in their design or application.

A second popular presence, associated with the open school, is a human presence. Here the teacher renounces almost all authority and allows the students' natural curiosity to govern the learning process. Followers of Carl Rogers support such an approach, and it was a major foundation of the once highly acclaimed British Primary School.

An intellectual presence requires ownership of the schooling experience. A teacher with intellectual presence has a coherent world view to which all required learning is connected. Such a teacher is willing to defend positions with logic and evidence and to debate those with differing views. The teacher with intellectual presence provides reasons for existing laws and regulations, and guidelines to persons who wish to change the system. It is not required that the student teacher taking part in the UCSC Drug Education program adopt the intellectual orientation of the staff, but all students were challenged continually to develop their own intellectuality, and were constantly required to provide a defense of their reasoning in seminars and classwork. Without such intellectual presence, it is impossible to understand alienation; and without understanding, finding remedies is equally impossible.

Teams

The student teachers in the UCSC program worked in teams essentially because teams provided opportunities for gratification. Through team membership, an individual can gain security and can turn to other persons when confronted by painful circumstances. There is opportunity to gain from the insights of others; the student develops a sense of belonging, of usefulness, and of competence through activities which are appreciated by other team members. Teams can effect far more change than individuals, and add fun and excitement. There are also risks: teams can be alienating; can foster dissension; can reward antisocial competencies and isolate individuals; and can shelter mediocre and destructive performance. The team is valuable only to the extent that it provides gratifications that reduce intrapersonal and interinstitutional alienation. Some of the teams in the USCS program successfully realized this goal; others did not.

Projects

Projects are essential in education, but they must have outcomes that everyone participating can feel, see, or touch. In education, where much of the activity is intangible and amorphous, it is imperative that clear, precise goals be established. Only when projects are tangible is it possible for participants to evaluate the importance of the activity.

A project must address a salient problem and must be designed so that each person's responsibility is clear; resources are identified to support and encourage those who are confused or fear failure; each individual's activity is vital to the outcome; and sufficient organization ensures that each person can make a contribution. Projects with these characteristics provide security, comfort, meaning, belonging, usefulness, competence, hope, and excitement for the participants. Again, there are risks. Poorly designed, inadequately organized projects can frustrate rather than gratify. And projects designed in the absence of theory are hit-and-miss propositions, unlikely to produce anything meaningful.

Community Involvement

Only by changing school-community relations can the school cease to be seen as an alien institution. Thus, projects must be designed to involve private employers, government officials, senior citizens, and parents. It is from this involvement that knowledge and constituencies for change will eventually come. Efforts were made in the UCSC program to establish such connections. In a few instances the results were promising, but present institutional restrictions, the extent of alienation, and the inability of our students to find linkages made this the most unsatisfactory aspect of the UCSC program.

There were some gratifying exceptions. Projects related to Cinco de Mayo festivals in Watsonville are one activity where bridges were built. Another positive step was elementary student involvement in a recent school board election in Santa Cruz where school officials were able to gain from their exchange with students. Guided by UCSC Drug Education project members, students in the project elementary school interviewed the school board candidates, with the goal of making public endorsements and providing reasons for those endorsements. The elementary students worked on issues, some suggested by UCSC students and teachers and some by the pupils themselves. One issue was the quality of school lunches. Before interviewing the candidates, the elementary students gained information from a variety of sources including the school administration, and a delegation of the students visited the administration building to get an understanding of school matters, particularly budgeting. When the question of school lunches came up, the assistant superintendent assured the students that he had been informed by an unimpeachable authority that the lunches were nutritious, whereupon a seven-year-old asked, "How can they be nutritious when nobody eats them?" It is possible that one change that will have been produced by the UCSC program will be better lunches in Santa Cruz schools.

Pluralism

No real change in feelings of alienation can take place unless division between ethnic and racial groups is overcome. Racism and ethnocentrism are deeply ingrained, and will not be removed by transient and superficial measures. Only through penetrating analysis and programs based on that analysis will prejudice and discrimination based on race,

ethnicity, class, and sex cease to erode the structure of justice in America. Pluralism based on social justice means respect for the accomplishments, values, and traditions of all groups. Pluralism is the conscious and systematic replacement of denigrating attitudes with appreciative attitudes. But pluralism also translates attitudes into action, and those actions must be a continuous thread through all of a school's programs. Pluralism is in the curriculum--in science as well as literature, mathematics as well as civics. Pluralism is also affirmative action in leadership; it is imperative that unrepresented minorities be involved in every aspect of education. In the UCSC Drug Education program, minority students were actively recruited but there was insufficient pluralism in changes of curriculum and staffing. Projects should actively seek to bring together antagonistic groups and foster feelings of competence, belonging, and usefulness across historical divisions.

THE UCSC PROGRAM AT WORK

Drug Education teams at Watsonville High School established classes which would implement the program theories. The Group Dynamics class attempted to ameliorate the alienation of Chicano, Mexicano, and Mexican-American students in the high school, since Spanish surnamed students had a dropout rate much higher than that of any other group. The other class was a cross-tutoring project that tried to build feelings of competence by having older students teach younger children. A variety of projects emerging from the interests of the UCSC and high school students were developed out of these classes. A mural that was created will remain a monument to the program, and changes in the restrictions on citizenship in school government were made.

The most consistently successful activity of the teams, however, was a variety of projects that became a part of the Cinco de Mayo festival. Watsonville High School students, together with the UCSC team, provided dance groups, song festivals, and theatrical productions; built a float for the parade; and involved parents in the preparation of foods. Students who a few days before the festival had been regarded as troublemakers were congratulated on their accomplishments. Each of the projects gratified many of the students' needs: they gained rare feelings of competence through socially desirable behavior; they received appreciation for being useful; and they established bonds of fraternity because of mutual reliance. In fact, the success of the Cinco de Mayo activities reduced students' desire to engage in other, equally acceptable, behavior. Success had a tendency to produce some imbalances, and that was evident in the UCSC/Watsonville High School experience. The students wanted to concentrate all their energies in such activities and thus neglected other aspects of their life--in particular, studies that could enhance their opportunities to succeed in college. Such imbalances, however, provided the data for seminars, critiques, new plans, and further evaluation.

EVALUATION OF THE UCSC PROGRAM

Many solid gains were produced by the Drug Education program, which is now the established teacher education program at the University of California at Santa Cruz. Because of the program, a theory has been enunciated and put into action; that theory has been refined and made more explicit, and is reflected in the course offerings and the organization of the program. In particular, efforts to establish a bilingual/multicultural emphasis based on concepts of social justice moved forward as a direct consequence of the Drug Education experience.

The clearest evidence of the success of the Drug Education program is the continued leadership graduates of the program are giving the educational system by continuing to utilize the theory and concepts of the program. They have maintained a consistent record of progress. The alternative education programs in Santa Cruz, which came into being as a consequence of the UCSC program, continue with former students as staff members. One graduate of the program, although only in his third year of teaching, is an assistant principal.

After three years of project operation, 110 students have participated in the project; 44 have received their teaching credentials. Of the 34 who graduated in 1975 and 1976, 20 are employed as teachers and 10 are in graduate school. The final evaluation of the project included direct observation of the students in the site classrooms by project staff, cooperating teachers, and administrators.

In an interview with several key Santa Cruz and Watsonville educators, it was unanimously acknowledged that through the work of the project students, the problems of alienated youth have been brought to the attention of the schools and that relevant and needed school projects implemented by UCSC students would not otherwise have been available to those youths. Some of the programs implemented because of the UCSC project are:

1. Project HOLD--a program in the Watsonville High School to keep pupils from dropping out before graduation
2. The Group Dynamics Class--now an established part of the Watsonville High School curriculum
3. The Watsonville bilingual-multicultural program sponsored under the Emergency School Aid Act (ESAA)
4. The Student Rights and Responsibilities Project now incorporated in Santa Cruz School Board of Education policy
5. The alternative high school in Santa Cruz, now under the direction of a UCSC program graduate.

SELF-KNOWLEDGE EDUCATION AS AN APPROACH TO DRUG ABUSE EDUCATION
University of Massachusetts

Alfred Alschuler, Kathleen Phillips, Gerald Weinstein

Using drugs (hard and soft drugs, medicines, coffee, alcohol, tobacco) is a multi-million dollar legal and illegal business in this country. It is part of our way of life, and is more relevant to students than most formal "subject matter." At minimum, a useful public education ought to convey accurate factual knowledge about drugs, their use and abuse. However, developing in students fuller knowledge about themselves as drug users and/or abusers, the functions drugs serve in their lives, and alternatives--safe, self-enhancing, socially acceptable, and cheap--to the same goals is more important than increasing abstract knowledge "about" drugs. Increased knowledge about drug use is vital to prevention of drug abuse, early intervention, treatment, and rehabilitation. According to Helen Nowlis in Drugs Demystified:

"The assumption behind this approach is that people take drugs because they want to, that drug use serves some function, gives them some satisfaction in some area of their lives, and that they will stop using drugs, or use less, if they find something better that will serve somewhat the same function."

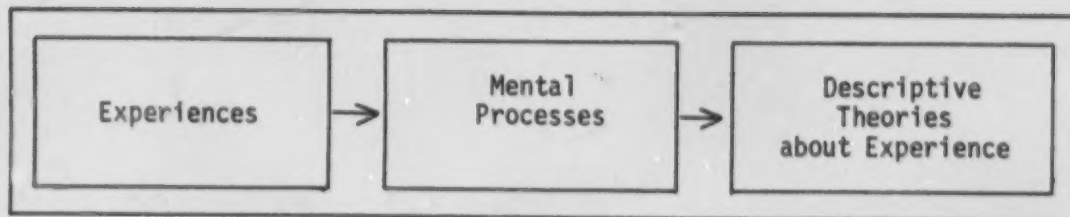
This hypothesis not only sounds plausible, it is a humane, charitable view of drug users as rational human beings capable of making choices and of learning self-enhancing and less socially pernicious ways to achieve their personal goals. Thus, the University of Massachusetts School of Education was funded for basic research on self-knowledge development, to find answers to four questions: (a) What is self-knowledge? (b) How do we measure it? (c) How do we increase it? (d) Does increased self-knowledge about drug use lead to greater self-enhancing behavior and less self-destructive behavior?

THE NATURE AND MEASUREMENT OF SELF-KNOWLEDGE

We did not expect to be able to deliver definitive answers to these questions in three years' time. Our goal was a basic definition of self-knowledge that we could measure and translate into useful teaching guidelines for increasing self-knowledge, not only in relation to drug use, but in any area of significant human concern: intimate human relations; being a parent; working; enjoying leisure time; finding meaning, significance, and value in life.

In research literature, self-knowledge is referred to by such terms as "self-concept," "identity," consciousness expansion, "reflexivity," "self-understanding," and "self-insight." Self-knowledge is also a central motif in much of the existential-phenomenological literature.

Figure 1
SELF-KNOWLEDGE



After reviewing philosophers' definitions of self-knowledge from Descartes to the present (Hopkins, 1974), we recognized three analytically distinct, interrelated aspects of an individual's self-knowledge: (a) direct, immediate, ultimately private experiences of thoughts, feelings, sensations, and actions; (b) the developing mental processes people use to translate their experience into descriptive theories; and (c) descriptive theories individuals hold, usually informally, about their experience and its causes, implications, and significance. The relationship between these three aspects of self-knowledge can be portrayed graphically as in Figure 1.

"Experiences" and the "mental processes" used to transform experience into verbalized statements can be assessed only indirectly through verbal statements. Thus, we developed an instrument that would elicit descriptive theories about experience and the significance, meaning, and value that experience has for the individual. This instrument asks individuals to recall briefly in their imagination a sequence of increasingly distant previous, unforgettable experiences, then to pick one event to remember in vivid detail. Individuals describe the experience fully and answer the following questions: How was the experience important or special to you then? How is the experience important or special to you now? From the experience you just remembered, please describe some things you know about yourself now. How could knowing this about yourself be useful to you? Specifically, how can it help you get what you want and avoid what you don't want?

In developing a method for coding individual responses, we attempted to differentiate between the highly variable manifest content and the stable, underlying developmental processes used to translate the content into descriptive theories. We assumed that the manifest content would vary for individuals as a result of their day-to-day encounters with social reality, and that the content would vary idiosyncratically among individuals and across cultural groups. In contrast, we were interested in identifying the basic forms these reports took as an index of the developmental structures and operations that filtered the experiences and shaped the verbal responses. We accepted as axiomatic that there is an invariant sequence of relatively stable hierarchical mental structures and operations which to a large extent characterize mental development

1 For complete instructions on the administration of the "Experience Recall Test," see Alschuler, Evans, Tamashiro, and Weirstein, 1975, Appendix A.

across cultures. This is the point of view of Piaget, Levi-Strauss, and other "structural-developmental" theorists. We attempted to extend these theories from descriptions of changes in how the external world is understood (time, space, motion, number, weight, volume) to a description of how one's internal world was conceived (intra- and interpersonal experience, intentionality, and the value, meaning, and significance of one's personal experience).

Our first "molecular coding system" attempted to filter out the content of test responses by translating sentences into geometric symbols. For example, $\bigcirc$ = "I" referents; $\rightarrow$ = actions taken; $\triangle$ = objects. Thus a sentence diagrammed, $\bigcirc \rightarrow \triangle$, could refer to "I rode the bicycle" or "I ate the ice cream cone." In all, we found it necessary to create 54 such symbols to diagram all the sentences in the derivation sample of 72 protocols from men and women between the ages of 7 and 68, from all social classes and different ethnic groups.

During this coding system derivation we had knowledge of each subject's score on the Loevinger Measure of Ego Development (Loevinger and Wessler, 1970), the measure most similar to our concept of self-knowledge. We used this information to order the protocols and suggest the sequence of new geometric symbols. Using the Guttman procedure for scaling these 54 symbols (Guttman, 1950), we found that 42 symbols appeared to form a developmental sequence (Alschuler, Evans, Tamashiro, and Weinstein, 1975, Appendix B). Furthermore, these symbols appeared to form four coherent clusters, indicating a sequence of four logically hierarchical stages of self-knowledge:

Elemental Self-Knowledge

Discrete, "visible" aspects of a single event (elements) are described. No true hypotheses seem to occur at this stage since no explicit connections causally relating the elements are stated, and the elements are not explicitly summarized as a single, complex situation. Instead, these elements are juxtaposed or serially ordered. Value is assigned in terms of simple adjective or adverb modifiers, and all these elements and values are reported as if they were obvious to others. It is as if one's self-knowledge "theory" at this stage consisted of an album of photographs with little, if any, editorial commentary. Examples of elemental self-knowledge sentences:

- "I was wearing my white dress."
- "I was six or seven at the time."
- "My mother yelled, 'do you want some lunch?'"
- "I had a big, big house."
- "I went to the store and got some ice cream."

Situational Self-Knowledge

At this stage, individuals appear to have a gestalt of a single situation composed of causally connected elements, including for the first time nonvisible internal thoughts and feelings. However, true hypotheses still do not appear since this instance is singular, not presented as an example of a more general pattern. Values are assigned

to feelings, to the whole event or situation, or by explicit comparison of two specific situations. Situational self-knowledge theory is characterized by the integration of elements into a single, specific, valued whole. The following sentences illustrate situational self-knowledge:

"The experience I remembered with deep pleasure was my wedding day."

"It was important to me because I had been terribly worried about making this commitment."

"It had a tremendous impact on my life."

"I remember feeling elated, but I hid my feelings somewhat."

Internal Pattern Self-Knowledge

At this stage, descriptions of experience include stable internal responses in relation to an explicit or implicit class of situations. Individuals see beyond single experiences and are able to hypothesize what their internal response will be to a set of stimuli. Traits, characteristics, sense of obligation, reciprocal relationships are named. Unforgettable experiences often are those which have inaugurated a new stable pattern of internal responses. Examples of internal pattern self-knowledge:

"I am impulsive in most interpersonal situations."

"Whenever I'm in trouble I always want to ask for help."

"All through high school, up to the eleventh grade, I had been real shy and quiet."

"I'm afraid of situations that threaten my self-concept."

"The kind of strength derived from happy childhood experiences has given me the confidence to help others and not to be frightened by other people's strength and confidence."

Process Self-Knowledge

Individuals describe actions they take to control, influence, modify, or develop their internal states. In contrast to the internal pattern stage in which generalized reactions are merely described, at this stage people recount how they consciously monitor or are deliberately pro-active in influencing their internal states. In addition to knowledge about their patterns of response, people develop verbalizable knowledge about the processes they use to manage their inner states. Process self-knowledge is illustrated in such sentences as:

"When I feel discouraged and alone, I withdraw, renew my own sense of accepting me, and then go on."

"I can give myself permission to feel my own feelings and to act on them."

"It took me a long time to admit my feelings to myself."

"Verbalizing all this puts me in touch with my own core."

If these stages are in fact hierarchical, each one being a necessary condition for the acquisition of the next, then the Guttman scaling

techniques are appropriate for assessing this hypothesis.² On the initial derivation sample of 72, the coefficient of scalability was .84 and the coefficient of reproducibility was .97, an impressive set of figures.

Since the derivation of coding categories in the sample was based in part on our knowledge of the subject's ego level, we cross-validated the findings on a second sample of 72 for which neither age nor ego level was known in advance by the coders. The second sample was comparable to the first in age, sex, ego level, and social class. The three coders had developed acceptably high coder reliability (above 80 percent agreement). On the second sample the coefficient of scalability was .87 and the coefficient of reproducibility was .99--higher than in the derivation sample, an extremely rare cross-validation result.

Having found support for the hypothesis that these stages of self-knowledge are hierarchical, we proceeded with several steps. First, we assessed the concurrent validity of our stage scores against age and ego level. For the derivation sample of 72, self-knowledge was correlated significantly with age ($r=.47$) and ego level ($r=.73$); for the cross-validation sample of 72, these results were replicated and correlations increased. Self-knowledge level correlated with both age ($r=.61$) and ego level ($r=.77$). Second, we developed a molar coding system for self-knowledge levels that was simple, quick, and easy to learn, use, and teach teachers.³ Third, we are investigating the relationship between self-knowledge levels and other significant aspects of human functioning in several different research populations.

A SELF-KNOWLEDGE DRUG EDUCATION COURSE

Based on our research findings, we pilot-tested a self-knowledge drug education course for 21 senior high school students in Montague, Mass., in the spring term of 1976. Purposes of the course were to help these students make sense from their experience with drugs and to use this topic to expand their existing self-knowledge stage capacities. The course has been revised and expanded and currently is being taught and evaluated in Maine. Data from the three treatment groups of 60 students should help us answer (a) whether drug use/abuse is related to self-knowledge levels; (b) whether the course increases self-knowledge levels; and (c) whether, therefore, the course decreases drug abuse.

We have already demonstrated the usefulness of the theory and operational measure in diagnosing the stage-perspective of the students. The majority of the senior high school students in Montague, Mass., and the participating Maine schools are at the situational stage. Students at this stage love to tell stories. Many have an exquisite memory for the details of place, sequence of action, and conversation. They describe feelings and thoughts as well as the causal relationships among

² In adapting our situation to be amenable to Guttman Statistics, we adopted a "three unit rule." In each stage there were between six and eight symbols. That stage was assumed to be present in the protocol if three different symbols of the eight were present. A "miss" was defined as the presence of three symbols at one stage with less than three symbols at the prior stage.

³ This coding system is available at cost to researchers from the Self-Knowledge Education Project, 456 Hills South, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Mass. 01003.

these elements of the situation. Generalizations that apply across several situations are not in their repertoire of thoughts, are not seemingly relevant or interesting; the situation is sufficient in and of itself. An example of a situational self-knowledge report of an incident including drugs:

"A few of my friends and I were on our way to the Mall. We stopped on the side of the road at a rest area. There were some big rocks we climbed up on. When we looked down there were these two guys parked in a car. They were smoking pot! A few minutes later they came up and asked us if we would like to get high with them. They began to talk to us and they were really nice people. It was a good way to get to know them. It made our trip better."

At most, students at the situational stage are able to provide overgeneralized Aesop-like morals to their stories that sound unpersuasive as useful lifeguides. One student, when asked what he learned from his massive hangover, said, "Never drink cheap beer in sleazy bars." It is as if the situation as a whole is the explanation of one's thoughts, feelings, and actions. Another perceptive student said, "The situation you are in can decide if you use or don't use drugs." This situation-specific causality is illustrated by a brief interchange:

"At that party I drank."

"Did you think about drinking less or perhaps even not drinking at all?"

"Ya, but everybody else was drinking."

This contrasts with the conceptual ability of people at the internal pattern stage who can define enduring personality traits that transcend the specific situation: "I'm a social drinker. I only do it to be friendly. I never drink alone, not even a couple of beers." For this man, social drinking is an aspect of his special personality, not a function of a single specific situation.

What are the implications of these stage descriptions for a developmentally relevant course? Situational students can and do tell you what they like, want, or need in a situation. But helping students consider alternatives to substance abuse should focus on alternative possible responses in a particular situation. Don't ask, "What else might you have done in that situation?" This is like asking Romans not to act like Romans when they are in Rome. It is more appropriate to ask, "What other situations can you think of where you can get what you want without drugs?" This question taps situational students' particular type of intentionality--to choose situations, rather than responses. Our self-knowledge drug education course is designed, first, to encourage these students to tell stories, in all their rich and fascinating detail. Causal relationships among the elements of each story are explored, particularly what the person wanted or got out of the situation. Later in the course, students are asked to consider alternative situations where they can get what they want and avoid what they don't want. To reach these ends, we have developed "guided recall" procedures, skits and role plays, record keeping, diaries, and classroom games designed to create relevant simulated situations (Phillips, McClain, and Jones, 1977).

During the course we also encourage students to become aware of other people's differing responses in similar situations. While these individual variations may be perceived, they are not fully understood until the internal pattern stage. At that time differing responses are no longer seen as idiosyncratic reactions to a particular situation, but as illustrations of stable differences among an individual's patterns of behavior. In the course we attempt to build this awareness inductively. As students demonstrate or describe their reactions to situation after situation, individual patterns become more evident, at least to the instructors. Students got to the point of recognizing two types of peers, the "heads" and the "straights." For some there is a dawning of awareness that these patterns are more than a sequence of situationally appropriate responses: "Not hanging around with 'heads' keeps me out of trouble"; "Whenever I'm at a party where there's a lot of drinking, I get scared." These stable patterns of action and feeling are aspects of an emerging trans-situational identity. In contrast with this type of developmental change, most students seem to subscribe to the situational view of one "head": "If circumstances change, maybe I'll change."

SELF-KNOWLEDGE DEVELOPMENT: A SOLUTION TO FIVE BASIC PROBLEMS IN HUMANISTIC EDUCATION

Our extensive and expensive research effort was not funded solely to provide developmental guidelines for drug education. Intended by-products of the work were solutions to basic problems in the field of Humanistic Education (variously called psychological, confluent, affective, or synoetic education). The numerous specific programs comprising Humanistic Education have in common the use of educational methods to promote human development, in contrast with therapeutic methods to remediate psychological crises, and traditional educational approaches to teach academic knowledge and skills. The "show" goals of education have always included "full human development" as a fundamental aim. Now the rhetoric has been translated into functioning programs, methods, techniques, curriculum packages, and teacher education workshops that are nationwide. Suddenly, practice has far outreached rhetoric and has created at least five generic problems in Humanistic Education:

Imprecise Goals

The goals of many existing humanistic programs and curricula are vague, poetic, fragmented, groundless, and nonmeasurable: helping people become aware of themselves, developing a positive self-concept, becoming self-actualized, becoming more open, joyful, connected, authentic, genuine, in touch, turned on. While these goals sound psychically gratifying, they leave educators operationally confused about what to do on Monday and why Tuesday's lesson should follow Monday's lesson and come before Wednesday's lesson. The rationale and precision of sequencing mathematics lessons illustrate, by comparison, how crude are our theories for sequencing activities that facilitate human development.

Lack of Pan-Development Relevance

Most of the experimental procedures used in humanistic curricula are adapted from the psychological procedures developed in the human

potential and humanistic psychology movements. These procedures were developed primarily for white middle-class adults. Gestalt, psycho-synthesis, transactional analysis, sensitivity training, encounter, bioenergetics--these have had their genesis with clients well above public school age. Adaptations of these procedures have been prescribed for children as "good things to do" regardless of age, stage of development, sex, race, ethnic background, or cultural context. It is as if fulfilling human potential were identical for all people at all ages.

Questions as to the appropriateness of the goals as well as the procedures for children at varying levels of development have not been raised carefully or systematically. Should six-year-olds be trained to be in the "here and now" because most adults have lost their willingness to be in the present? Might children not have different psychological work to do, depending on their stage of development? Shouldn't psychological procedures be geared toward certain capacities? Developmental criteria are needed to determine appropriateness of goals and procedures.

Ephemeral Learning Gains

One of the major attractions of the human potential movement is its ability to arouse participants, to "turn them on," give them what is comparable to a "drug high." "Get high on yourself" is a common slogan in personal growth center brochures. People attend week-long, weekend, or weeknight workshops and experience an oasis of intimacy, self-disclosure, and openness. However, when they return to their everyday reality, there is a common experience of regression. Six months after the "experience," participants report few constructive changes, and not much more than normal changes from living one's daily life (Yalom, Lieberman, and Miles, 1973). Teachers, exposed to affective exercises, try them in classrooms and are rewarded by the ensuing arousal which sometimes contrasts sharply with the often mundane responses they get when following their regular curriculum. At the same time, however, teachers, students, and parents are asking legitimate questions: "Yes, but am I really teaching anything worthwhile?" "It's fun, but I don't know if I'm really learning anything." "Is my child learning anything that will help later on?"

Lack of a Framework for Training Humanistic Educators

Without a comprehensive, consistent, and powerful goal-framework, it is difficult to design programs for the training of professionals who are competent to train students, fellow teachers, and administrators. Much of what passes as the training programs for trainers consists of "psychological repertoire acquisition": acquisition of a brand name set of techniques or strategies. Thus a trainee experiences encounter, gestalt, psychosynthesis, T-group sessions, and then begins to expose others to these modes. The educational goal becomes whatever the goal of that particular psychological mode happens to be. The procedure dictates the goal, rather than the reverse. If we know more certainly and comprehensively what it is we want to induce for learners and when it is appropriate, we will be better able to train humanistic educators with architectural capabilities, rather than humanistic technicians with a limited repertoire of skills and fuzzy conceptions of the overall goals.

Insufficient Measures of Basic Goals

Many, if not most, of the goals advocated by humanistic educators do not have accompanying validated measures. As a result, it is difficult to respond to the legitimate questions of parents and administrators who want to know whether the course "works," whether it is worth the scarce time and money invested. It is equally difficult for humanistic educators to assess their efforts regularly and, using this feedback, progressively increase their effectiveness. Existing instruments, especially those measuring aspects of the affective domain, are either insensitive or inappropriate for assessing the fundamental goals of development. The traits these instruments are assumed to measure are a prime example of the inadequacies of such approaches. Most self-concept tests do not even measure the self-convincing process, its content and changing structure over time.

SUMMARY

We believe defining and measuring relevant developmental capacities are the most important tasks in the field of humanistic education. Kohlberg's work in measuring and promoting moral reasoning (Kohlberg and Meyer, 1972) and the efforts of Loevinger (1970) in measuring ego development are prototypes of what we have in mind. We offer our definition and measure of self-knowledge as an alternative solution to these five basic problems in the field of humanistic education. Self-knowledge is defined in terms of four stages, with a number of specific components in each stage. These components and stages have been operationally defined using a standardized test and coding system. The coding system also constitutes a set of precise, measurable educational objectives. We have strong initial evidence that these stages are sequential and hierarchical, thus a natural sequence of development. Because they are basic stages roughly equivalent to broad time periods--elementary school (Elemental), secondary school (Situational), post-secondary (Patterned), and adult (Process)--these capabilities appear to be both stable and important.

The stage theory is also mobile, in the sense that it can be used to adapt almost any existing mode or program in humanistic education to an appropriate stage level. Thus the theory defines architectural skills to teach humanistic educators: diagnosing students' self-knowledge levels using this test and theory, adapting or combining programs and modes appropriate to the diagnosed level, using modes as a vehicle to expand or advance the stage of self-knowledge. We have illustrated how this can be done with a drug education course for high school students. The matrix of possible applications of our work to different developmental stages, using different modes of humanistic education and relating to different social issues, is enormous. The field of Humanistic Education is entering a new period in which basic theory, solid research, and imaginative educational methods are synergistically combined to help solve a variety of important social problems, such as drug abuse.

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AFTERWORD

The six demonstration projects are continuing to operate in their respective institutions although federal funding terminated in September 1977, and the "Self-Knowledge" curriculum materials are in active use in a number of classrooms. In terms of the demonstration projects no one can say they have completely "humanized" the teacher education programs in their institutions. However, a gratifying start has been made in each case, and there exists a genuine commitment on the part of the college and university administrations involved.

Keeping in mind the rationale for this USOE-sponsored effort, namely, to institute changes in teacher training institutions that will prepare future teachers better to promote positive growth and development in young people, it will be useful to highlight what the project directors deemed to be the most significant features of the projects. They appear here in greatly abbreviated form. The reader is therefore urged to read the individual papers in their entirety so that these project strategies will be viewed in the proper context.

SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT FEATURES

- Inservice training of college of education staff which resulted in staff growth and changes in educational philosophy. College faculty modeled the behavior they were trying to inculcate into their students in education. This resulted in different classroom behavior and different faculty-student relationships.

- Earlier and more varied field experiences for the prospective teacher. The increased exposure to the classroom and experience with young people, many of whom had difficulty in adjusting to the schools, resulted in a more confident, creative, committed, and highly energized student teacher.

- Alternative, nontraditional sites which enabled professors and students to see that teaching/learning can occur with other than traditional methods and in settings other than public schools. This exposure also opened up the possibility of alternative career options for education majors outside the regular classroom.

- The creation of a true advisor/advisee relationship between professor and student where it had not existed before. In all cases there was a close, caring, nurturing relationship between faculty and students. The students became aware of themselves as members of an education community and not just as impersonal receptacles to be filled with knowledge. In the Learning Community, for example, where faculty and students work together over a concentrated period of time, more direct and personal interaction is possible.

● A closer integration of professional course work (theory) with practice in the classrooms or placement sites. Seminars provided opportunities for student teachers to bring their problems to their professors and peers for discussions of strategies. One creative approach to the integration of theory with practice was team teaching by Method and Learning Theory professors so that student teachers experienced the immediate application of theory to their particular subject matter area.

● Cooperation and interaction across disciplines in the college or school of education. This interaction established a closer working relationship among faculty, helped to eliminate duplication, and made faculty more aware of how they could provide the student with a more integrated educational experience.

● Support from the administration in the colleges and universities involved. Such support is crucial. Deans of the colleges and schools of education visited placement sites, participated in seminars and retreats, and in some instances participated in inservice education activities. Their becoming involved in the process enhanced the community feeling.

● Student governance or allowing the students to participate to varying degrees in the making of decisions which affected them.

● Closer relationship between college and university faculty and cooperating or supervising teachers in elementary and secondary schools. College faculty made more frequent visits to elementary and secondary schools, and public school teachers were used as adjunct staff in the schools and colleges of education.

● Sending students to work on a project as teams in a cooperating school under the supervision of a college faculty member. Teams can effect far more change than individuals and individuals derive security from membership on the team. Obviously, a school must be receptive to the idea of a team and the team must have an appropriate rationale for existence. However, it does provide the possibility for an exciting educational experience for prospective teachers and can have a salutary impact on the school receiving the team.

TO SUM UP: It is the belief of project staff members that for student teachers, the combination of careful nurturing in schools of education, closer relationships with the faculty, early and more varied field experiences, opportunities to interact with peers, and a measure of control over their own destinies will result in teachers more confident and better able to promote growth and development in the young people with whom they will be working in the classroom.

The consummation so devoutly to be desired, however, is that the humanistic practices exemplified in the demonstration projects will spread to and be integrated into other parts of the university system. This may indeed happen on two campuses where a School of Dentistry and a School of Engineering, respectively, evinced strong interest in the activities of the projects.

The next step in the minds of the project directors has to be the integration of humanistic education into the "three R's." When institutions accept the responsibility for providing a more holistic approach to the learner at whatever level, they will have provided each student with the tools and skills to attain the highest possible quality of life.

There is every expectation that the graduates of the demonstration projects are now doing a competent job in their classrooms as a result of their preservice experience. At the same time, it must be kept in mind that there is a big difference between the positive, supportive preservice environment and the real world. While it may be assumed that prospective teachers who have experienced programs designed to enhance their own growth have developed the skills and the maintenance mechanisms to cope with the frustrations and blows of the real world, USOE would like to explore this proposition further. Accordingly, in October 1977, USOE let a contract for a followup of the students in the six demonstration projects who have graduated and are now out in the field teaching or involved in education-related activity. The objectives of such a followup effort are:

1. To ascertain how effectively the teachers are performing as a result of the training in promoting the humane skills and enhancing the educational environment, the central focus of the preservice effort
2. To determine what problems they are facing for which their training did not prepare them
3. To cooperate with staff in each of the participating colleges of education in establishing a feedback system through which new teachers can assist in ongoing project curriculum modification by sharing their successes and failures
4. To work with project staff to establish a technical assistance delivery mechanism which can utilize the feedback system in providing inservice help to new teachers
5. To assist the staff in each of the participating universities in creating an environment and problem-solving process through which the needs and concerns of new teachers may be made manifest to project personnel and current education majors. A special focus here, and at all work levels, will be placed on the problem of bridging the methods/subject dichotomy. The vehicle will be weekend seminars (one at each project) for a select group of recent teacher graduates to come together with current preservice trainees, faculty of the school of education, and other education personnel for fact-finding, problem-solving sessions.

In addition, the followup effort includes working with project staff of the University of Massachusetts to set up a conference environment and problem-solving process whereby both the curriculum and the

research components of the "Self-Knowledge" program benefit from feedback from elementary and secondary teachers who use project materials.

From this followup of the seven projects, USOE will develop for the participating projects and the profession a report which will focus on achieving the primary prevention goals of all the teacher preparation projects.